

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38

NEGRO EDUCATION
A STUDY OF THE PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR
COLORED PEOPLE IN THE UNITED STATES

PREPARED IN COOPERATION WITH THE PHELPS-STOKES FUND
UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THOMAS JESSE JONES,
SPECIALIST IN THE EDUCATION OF RACIAL
GROUPS, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

IN TWO VOLUMES
VOLUME I



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, February 12, 1917.

SIR: All who know best the Southern States and their problems must, I believe, approve the sentiment of the statement recently made by the Southern University Race Commission, composed of representatives of the State universities of 11 Southern States. This statement was sent in an open letter to the college men of the South and is as follows:

The South can not realize its destiny if one-third of her population is undeveloped and inefficient. For our common welfare we must strive to cure disease wherever we find it, strengthen whatever is weak, and develop all that is undeveloped. The inadequate provision for the education of the Negro is more than an injustice to him; it is an injury to the white man.

The effective education of the Negroes of the United States is essential to the welfare of the entire Nation, and especially of the Southern States. In view of this fact, the report herewith transmitted has immediate and practical value of a very high degree. Noteworthy elements in the preparation of this report on Negro education are: (1) Collection of the facts through personal visitation to the institutions described; (2) cooperation of public and private authorities; (3) the constructive purpose involved in the study and in the presentation of the information. Every school reported upon was visited by one or more of this Bureau's agents, and the larger schools were studied by specialists in different types of education. These agents were selected for their knowledge of the various groups interested in Negro education; they represented the South the North, and the colored race.

Throughout the course of the study the State superintendents of public instruction in the South have rendered valuable assistance. Practically all the facts concerning public schools have been obtained directly through their officers. The trustees and officers of private institutions have likewise been most cordial and helpful. This help has been given all the more freely because of their interest.

This report on Negro education is transmitted in two volumes. The first volume is a discussion of the various phases of Negro education. Each chapter seeks, first, to present conditions as they are, and then to outline "means and methods" for the increase of educational facilities and the betterment of the particular type of educational activity under consideration. The second volume presents a detailed statement, on the basis of a geographical arrangement, of the facts pertaining to colored schools. Every private and higher school for which any information was available is separately described in this volume. Each of the Southern States is represented by a separate chapter, the private colored schools of the Northern States being grouped together in the last chapter of the volume. Special attention is called to the intro-

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

duction and the first chapter of Volume I (Bull. 38) and the first two chapters of Volume II (Bull. 39). These afford general summaries of Negro education in the United States.

This study has been made with the cooperation of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, a fund founded by Miss Caroline Phelps-Stokes, whose general interest in human welfare and special interest in those who need help most led her to bequeath her fortune of almost a million dollars "for the education of the Negroes, North American Indians, and deserving white students." In the spirit of this bequest the trustees of this fund have cooperated with the Bureau in making this fundamental study of the progress of education of Negroes in the United States and of the character and support of all schools for Negroes of secondary or higher grade, and of all schools, of whatever grade, which receive appreciable support from private individuals, church organizations, boards of education, and other organized societies. The fund has borne most of the expenses connected with the collection and compilation of material for this study and in preparing the manuscript for the printer. In addition to this the trustees have given much valuable advice and counsel. The study owes much especially to Dr. Anson Phelps-Stokes, secretary of Yale University, upon whom, as secretary of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, the responsibility for the cooperation of the Bureau has devolved. Very valuable advice on important matters has also been given by Mr. I. N. Phelps-Stokes, the president of the fund. Although most of the expenses of the study have been borne by the Phelps-Stokes Fund, the investigations, the interpretation of the materials collected, and the preparation of the manuscript have been made upon the authority of the Bureau of Education under the immediate direction of the Commissioner of Education, and have had his constant supervision and attention.

I recommend that the manuscript be published as bulletins of the Bureau of Education, and in two volumes as stated above.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

INTRODUCTION.

The trustees of the Phelps-Stokes Fund were incorporated by the Legislature of the State of New York in 1911, the trustees being persons named by Miss Caroline Phelps Stokes in her will, which was duly admitted to probate by the surrogate's court of New York County November 9, 1909. The act of incorporation, following the general provisions of Miss Stokes's will, and indicating the breadth of educational and philanthropic interests which she had shown during her lifetime, provided that the income of the fund, originally amounting to about \$900,000, and of additions to it, should be used for the—

erection and improvement of tenement house dwellings in the city of New York for the poor families of that city, either directly or by the acquisition of the capital stock or obligations of any other corporation organized for that purpose; and for the education of Negroes, both in Africa and the United States, North American Indians, and needy and deserving white students, through industrial schools, the founding of scholarships, and the erection or endowment of school buildings or chapels. It shall be within the purpose of said corporation to use any means to such ends which shall from time to time seem expedient to its members or trustees, including research, publication, the establishment and maintenance of charitable or benevolent activities, agencies, and institutions, and the aid of any such activities, agencies, or institutions already established.

In accordance with these conditions two committees were appointed at an early meeting of the trustees, a committee on housing and a committee on education, the latter consisting of Rt. Rev. David H. Greer, D. D., LL. D., bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of New York; Elmer Ellsworth Brown, LL. D., chancellor of New York University, both ex officio trustees; and the undersigned, the secretary of the board. This subcommittee, after consultation with the chairman of the Board, Mr. I. N. Phelps Stokes, and with representative leaders in southern education, such as the late Edgar Gardner Murphy, of Montgomery, Ala.; James H. Dillard, of New Orleans; Hollis B. Frissell, of Hampton Institute; the late Booker T. Washington, of Tuskegee; and others, duly recommended to the trustees at their meeting in November, 1912, the preparation of a report on Negro education. The trustees, believing that such a report of existing conditions would prove invaluable to southern educators and legislators, to philanthropists interested in Negro education, to the principals and trustees of schools for colored youth, and to various educational boards, adopted the recommendations and asked the Commissioner of Education if he would accept the cooperation of the Phelps-Stokes Fund in making such a study on condition that the expenses of the agents should be paid by the fund. A memorandum, drawn up by the Bureau of Education and the trustees of the board at the time this joint work was begun, and intended for use in answering inquiries, is here reproduced as showing the origin and plan of the survey:

The United States Bureau of Education in cooperation with the Phelps-Stokes fund is now making a comprehensive study of the private and higher schools for colored people. This study is undertaken

in response to numerous and insistent demands for knowledge of these schools, the number of which is constantly increasing. Thoughtful people of the South and of the North, white and colored, are more and more puzzled as to the merits and demerits of the many appeals for money and sympathy in behalf of all sorts and conditions of institutions for the improvement of Negroes. Letters from State superintendents of education in the South emphasize the need of a complete survey of the whole field. At a recent conference of the representatives of some of these schools held in New York, it was the consensus of opinion that there is much duplication of educational effort in some sections but much more of neglect in many other sections. Every educational board interested in the colored people and almost every individual who contributes to this cause is calling for information. After considerable discussion of this need by Dr. Dillard of the Jeanes Fund and the Slater Board, and by other representatives of the Conference for Education in the South, it was decided to appeal to the United States Commissioner of Education for a thorough study of the private and higher schools for Negroes. Commissioner Claxton's intimate knowledge of every phase of education in the South enabled him to understand the importance of this request and he immediately began to make plans for the study now under way.

A remarkable evidence of the importance of this survey is the fact that about the same time two other important organizations interested in colored schools decided to assemble information on this subject. Dr. J. H. Dillard, secretary of the Slater Board, obtained permission of that body to begin the study. It was at this time also that the trustees of the Phelps-Stokes fund, confronted by appeals from all sorts and conditions of schools, decided to make a thorough survey of the situation.

The cooperation of the Bureau of Education and the Phelps-Stokes fund is the result of the close relationship of the representatives of the Slater Board, the Conference for Education in the South, and the trustees of the Phelps-Stokes fund with each other and with Commissioner Claxton. Through this cooperation unnecessary duplication is avoided and time, effort, and money are saved.

An exhaustive schedule of questions in regard to the schools has been prepared with much care and is being filled by Dr. Jones and those associated with him, after careful investigation of the schools made by them. These questions relate to the history of the schools, their present condition, their management, their religious and social activities, and the work of graduates and former students. Attention will also be given to the relation of the schools to their communities.

When sufficient data have been collected a report will be printed and published, giving a brief but accurate survey of each school, of its equipment, its work, and its place in the educational system of the city, county, or State in which it is located.

The main purpose was to supply through an impartial investigation a body of facts which could be available to all interested, showing the status of Negro education, by an examination of the various colleges and public and private schools for colored youth in the United States. It was believed, and the results of the examination have confirmed the belief, that there is no more important agency to bring about the improvement of education than dignified publicity regarding educational conditions. It brings good institutions and good methods to the favorable attention of patrons, voters, and teachers everywhere, and similarly, by disclosing the actual facts, shows what institutions and methods are unworthy of general support. It has been encouraging to note how many improvements have been introduced in the schools merely as a result of the sympathetic interest and suggestions of the board's agents, who have proved that a scientific investigation could be combined with friendly and helpful interest in the improvement of conditions.

The difficult and delicate task of investigation was placed in charge of Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones. Dr. Jones was selected after the most careful consultation with representative southern educators as the best qualified person in the country to conduct the investigation. His Welsh birth gives him a certain detached point of view; while his education at a southern university (Washington and Lee), a mid-western college (Marietta), an undenominational theological school (Union), and a northern university (Columbia),

where he took his doctorate of philosophy in sociology, combined with work as principal of a public school, all added to his breadth of outlook and sympathy. Eight years work in the research department of Hampton Institute and the experience involved in taking charge of the Negro statistics for the census of 1910 gave him a special familiarity with the conditions of the colored people in this country.

His regular assistants have included two graduates of the University of Georgia, and a graduate of Howard University. The Georgia men were from representative southern families who had shown as undergraduates their ability as students of social conditions by winning the Phelps-Stokes Fellowships "for the study of the Negro" founded in 1911 at this university and at the University of Virginia. Their theses have both been published by their respective universities. That of Thomas Jackson Woofert was on "The Negro of Athens, Georgia"; that of Walter B. Hill, on "The Negro of Clark County, Georgia."

As the Phelps-Stokes Fund, cooperating with the Bureau of Education, was anxious that the point of view of the dominant race in the South should be adequately represented on its investigating staff, so it felt that the attitude and insight of the best type of educated colored man would be invaluable. To this end Ocea Taylor was employed. He is a graduate of the State Agricultural and Mechanical College of Alabama, and has taken the degrees of B. A. and LL. B. at Howard University.

The complete harmony of spirit and purpose that has prevailed among the members of the staff throughout the three years of the investigation, in spite of their differences of birth and education, is a happy evidence and augury of what is to be expected when men of high character and purpose trained to investigate facts cooperate in removing the Negro problem from the realm of the emotions to that of dispassionate study.

The services of other competent investigators have also been availed of. Among those who have rendered important service are: Prof. William Hill, of the University of Chicago, an authority on the subject of the teaching of agriculture; Mrs. Thomas Jesse Jones, whose sympathetic insight into living conditions among Negro girls and women has been most helpful; Dr. G. S. Dickerman, former agent of the Slater Fund, who has written the section on the history of Negro education; Mr. A. H. Albertson, of the architectural firm of Howells and Stokes, of New York City, who with Mrs. Albertson prepared the report on the building and architecture of Negro schools; Messrs. Bebbington and Higson, chartered accountants of New York; Mr. Ogden Purves, grandson of Mr. Robert C. Ogden, one of the foremost leaders in the field of Negro education; Mr. John H. Jinks, specialist in manual training at Hampton Institute, and many others.

The report is presented to the public with the profound conviction that a knowledge of conditions as they actually exist in the field of Negro education can do only good. It is hoped that the facts presented will prove of special service by indicating the need of more adequate appropriations for the public education of the Negro, by showing the encouraging results—mental, moral and social—where colored youth have secured an education wisely fitted to their actual needs, and by helping the philanthropically inclined both North and South to differentiate between private schools which deserve support and those which do not. It will be noticed that the purpose of this investigation has been fundamentally constructive. It has been prepared without prejudice, and with full appreciation of the four factors that have contributed most during the past half

century to Negro education; namely, the southern white people, the Negroes themselves, individual philanthropists, and various educational boards. It is believed that the amounts contributed by the first two of these, as brought out in this report, will surprise most readers, although it is clear that it is through the increase of public taxation for Negro education that the largest measure of improvement will come in the future. This is as it should be, and fortunately the most representative of the white people of the South, who profit most by the Negro's strength and suffer most from his weakness, fully realize this, although only a beginning has been made in getting the State legislatures to carry out their plans.

At one of the earliest meetings of the trustees the undersigned presented a memorandum on the educational work which the board should undertake. In this it was pointed out that the cooperation of the representative white citizens of the South was a matter "of prime importance in solving the problem of Negro education." If this report should prove of service in still further increasing this cooperation in the interest of both races, it will be specially gratifying.

ANSON PHELPS STOKES,
Secretary of the Phelps-Stokes Trustees.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 1.



A MARK HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.
Petr School, St. Helena Island, S. C.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

I. GENERAL SURVEY.

The education of the Negroes in the United States involves much more than the instruction of a people fifty years removed from slavery. It involves the adjustment of that group to the economic, civic, and spiritual possibilities of a democracy. Never was greater opportunity for service offered to any nation than that presented by the need of the American Negro for an education that will fit him to undertake the responsibilities of life in the twentieth century. Never was there a more searching test of democratic ideals than the present necessity of a wise adjustment of the hopes and aspirations of 10,000,000 black people and the standards and principles of the 90,000,000 white people of the United States.

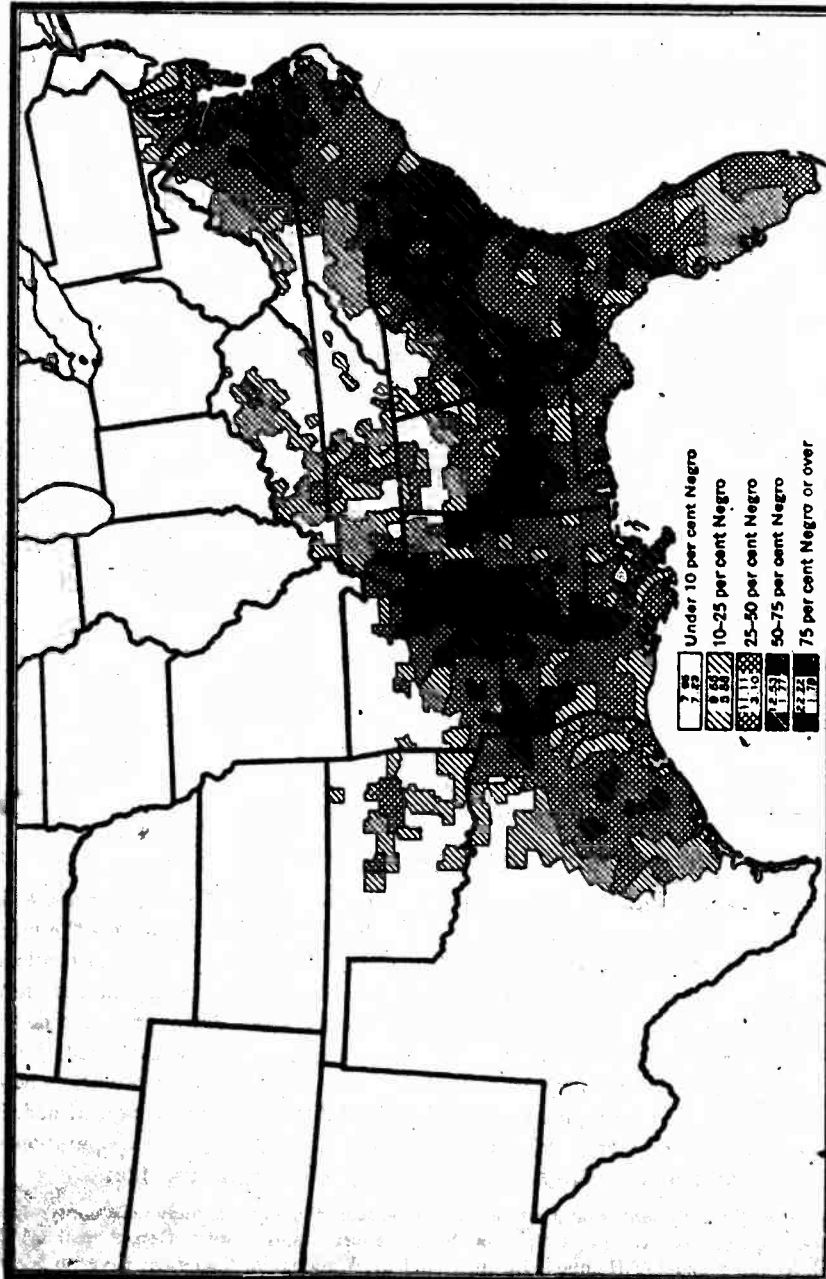
Race questions encircle the globe. Through the acquisition of the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico and the peculiar relations to Cuba and Mexico, the American people are entering more and more into problems of races and nations. In none of these relations, however, is the opportunity to serve so clear, the responsibility to assist so certain, and the necessity of solution so absolute as in the case of the black people who in field and shop and home are in daily contact with the white people. How is American democracy to meet this test of its wisdom and idealism? Will the people of the United States work out an educational policy that will inspire the world to a more real sense of interresponsibility? While the complete answer to these vital questions requires the consideration of many phases of human relations, it is probable that the most definite answer is in the study of present policies in the education of the Negroes.

THE THREE ELEMENTS IN RACE ADJUSTMENT.

The three parties to the problem of racial adjustment in the United States are the North, the South, and the Negro. The second volume of this report shows the interaction of these three elements. The outstanding facts in the study of the educational phase of adjustment are first, the large place which the Negroes occupy in the life of the American people and especially of the South; second, the maintenance of a double system of public schools in the South where the per capita wealth is considerably below the general average of the country; and third, the good work of Negro private schools maintained mainly by northern philanthropy. Principal Moton, in his inaugural address as the successor of Dr. Booker T. Washington, based his message on the cooperation of the North, the South, and the Negro in the founding of Tuskegee Institute:

Here met the three elements that must be taken into account in any genuinely satisfactory adjustment of race relationships. Here met Mr. Campbell, the former slave owner; Gen. Armstrong, the northern soldier and founder of Hampton Institute, and Dr. Washington, the former slave, to begin a form of cooperation, the scope and effectiveness of which were destined to command the respect and admiration, not only of this nation, but also of the entire civilized world.

NEGRO EDUCATION.



MAP 1.—PERCENTAGE OF NEGROES IN THE POPULATION.

The figures in the oblongs indicate the per capita expenditures, based on teachers' salaries, averaged for each population group. The upper figure is for white children; the lower for colored. (See p. 27.)

THE NEGROES.

No racial group in the United States offers so many problems of economic and social adjustment as the 10,000,000 Negroes. Though churches and philanthropic societies seem to have much more interest in immigrants and Indians, the Negroes rival both these groups in total numbers and surpass them in the difficulty of the questions to be solved. A glance at the map opposite reveals the remarkable concentration of the colored people in the so-called "black belts." Negroes form almost a third of the total population of the South. In Mississippi and South Carolina, they constitute over half the population; and in the "black belt" counties, the proportion ranges from 50 to 90 per cent. The significance of such a concentration is difficult to explain to those not familiar with communities composed of people who differ widely not only in economic and educational status but also in ethnic type.

In the 50 years since freedom was decreed, Negro illiteracy has decreased from over 90 per cent to 30 per cent; almost 1,000,000 colored men are now farmers of varying degrees of independence; a quarter of a million own their farms the total amount of land owned by them aggregating 20,000,000 acres of fertile soil. These facts are indisputable evidence not only that the colored people are capable of progress but also that their white neighbors have looked with favor upon their struggles and in many instances have given substantial aid to their endeavors. Admirable as all these evidences of progress of the colored people are as a guaranty that the race will ultimately make its way, they show that the masses of the colored people are just beginning to appreciate the economic possibilities and moral standards of twentieth century civilization. Figures for death rate and prison population are probably the best available statistical measures of the difficulties confronting the colored people both within and without the race. In giving these figures the desire is to emphasize the fact that they reflect not only the ignorance and poverty of the race, but also the unfavorable conditions in which the colored people are compelled to live. Whether the causes are within or without the race, the fact remains that the death rate of the colored people is 24 per 1,000 as against 15 for the whites, and that the prisons of the South Atlantic States have proportionally five times as many colored prisoners as white. Just as the decrease of illiteracy and the increasing ownership of land are sure evidences of the inherent worth of the colored people and of the genuine friendship of their white neighbors, so the high death rate and the large prison population are certain proof that there are either serious problems of education within the race or unfortunate limitations placed upon them from without, or both.

As the Negroes are the primary element that give rise to the problem, so are they becoming more and more an important factor in its solution. Their contribution includes both an increasing financial support and an ever larger proportion of the teaching force. They contribute not only a goodly share of the taxes for their public schools, but also a considerable sum toward the private schools. Furthermore, the colored people give considerable sums to extend the terms of the public schools. It is probable that their total gifts aggregate \$500,000 annually over and above their share of the public taxes.

In the years immediately following the Civil War, the proportion of white teachers was necessarily very large in both the public and the private schools for colored people.

Now colored teachers have charge of almost all the public schools of all grades. The notable exceptions are the public schools of Charleston, S. C., some of the New Orleans schools, and a few public high schools. In the schools maintained by colored denominations practically all the teachers are colored. Even in the institutions maintained by northern philanthropy, the elimination of white teachers has been gradually proceeding until now 74 per cent of all the teachers are colored.

This increasing responsibility of the Negroes for their own education is one of the hopeful signs in the progress of the race. It is not only sound democracy but good pedagogy to work with a people rather than for them. So far as this principle is realized in the tendency to turn over the colored schools to colored teachers, the movement is sound. There is, however, considerable ground for the apprehension that the rapidity with which white teachers have been eliminated is too largely explained by the desire to be rid of an unpleasant duty. The southern people, impressed by the irritations sometimes attending the presence of white teachers in colored schools, are seeking the easy solution by substituting colored teachers for white teachers. Many of the colored leaders, debarred from so many positions of influence, are naturally enthusiastic advocates of a policy that enlarges their opportunities. Northern philanthropy, unacquainted with the real situation, is willing that its gifts shall be expended with the least possible responsibility as to method. The result has been the rapid change from white to colored teachers in both public and private schools. The remarkable service of Dr. Booker T. Washington and many other colored men and women in the education of their race is ample evidence of the value of their contribution. With full appreciation of these services and of the principle of democracy involved, an increasing number of thoughtful men and women question the rapidity and universality of the change, because it appears to them to complete the segregation of the Negro from the aid, influence, and standards of white people. The Negroes in America must live and work with white people; surely, therefore, they should have the benefit of instruction from the representatives of the white group at some point in their school life.

THE SOUTH.

Next to the Negroes, the group most concerned in this problem are the 23,700,000 white people of the South. Of the 10,000,000 Negroes in the United States, 9,000,000 are living in the Southern States. The significance of these proportions has been discussed in the preceding section. The white group is large and powerful in number, wealth, education, and experience. It is in control of the Government, the schools, and the social customs. No plan for the improvement of the colored group is well considered that does not contemplate the cooperation of the white group.

Many causes have contributed to the complication of race relations in the South. The historical position of the Negro as a slave has had a direct influence on the mental attitude, not only in the South but, to some extent, in the North. The Civil War and reconstruction days created feelings and misunderstandings that included the whole country. In recent years the extension of economic and social power to the masses of white people in the South has enlarged the group on which the civic and educational interests of the Negro depend. This extension adds to the difficulty of distinguishing the irritations of race prejudice from the clashes of economic interests.

But, however much the white and black millions may differ, however serious may be the problems of sanitation and education developed by the Negroes, the economic future of the South depends upon the adequate training of the black as well as the white workman of that section. The fertile soil, the magnificent forests, the extensive mineral resources, and the unharnessed waterfalls are awaiting the trained mind and the skilled hand of both the white man and the black man. The extent to which the educational leaders of the South realize the economic importance of the Negro is indicated by the facts presented in this report.

As yet only the progressive leaders are giving serious consideration to the subject. The number of these leaders is increasing, however. In vision and strength they form a remarkable group. Up and down the Southern States still resound the echoes of Haygood, Curry, Northen, and Vance pleading for the education of the colored people. Every Southern State has a small group of determined leaders, of representative families, who see the necessity for educating the Negro. Ten Southern States have already appointed State supervisors of colored schools. The men who hold these responsible positions are southern white men of ability and high character who are sincerely devoted to the best interests of the Negro. Such organizations as the Southern University Race Commission, the Southern Sociological Congress, and the Y. M. C. A. race study classes in southern white colleges are all forces indicating the new attitude toward the colored people. The following open letter by the Southern University Race Commission has been called "the most clear-cut statement in favor of the education of the Negroes that has been issued by any body of southern white men:"

The solution of all human problems ultimately rests upon rightly directed education. In its last analysis education simply means bringing forth all the native capacities of the individual for the benefit both of himself and of society. It is axiomatic that a developed plant, animal, or man is far more valuable to society than an undeveloped one. It is likewise obvious that ignorance is the most fruitful source of human ills. Furthermore it is as true in a social as in a physical sense that a chain is no stronger than its weakest link. The good results thus far obtained, as shown by the Negro's progress within recent years, prompt the commission to urge the extension of his educational opportunities.

The inadequate provision for the education of the Negro is more than an injustice to him; it is an injury to the white man. The South can not realize its destiny if one-third of its population is undeveloped and inefficient. For our common welfare we must strive to cure disease wherever we find it, strengthen whatever is weak, and develop all that is undeveloped. The initial steps for increasing the efficiency and usefulness of the Negro race must necessarily be taken in the schoolroom. There can be no denying that more and better schools with better trained and better paid teachers, more adequate supervision, and longer terms are needed for the blacks as well as the whites. The Negro schools are, of course, parts of the school systems of their respective States, and as such share in the progress and prosperity of their State systems. Our appeal is for a larger share for the Negro on the ground of the common welfare and common justice. He is the weakest link in our civilization, and our welfare is indissolubly bound up with his.

Many means are open to the college men of the South for arousing greater public interest in this matter and for promoting a more vigorous public effort to this end. A right attitude in this, as in all other important public questions, is a condition precedent to success. For this reason the commission addresses to southern college men this special appeal.

THE NORTH.

Though the Northern States are not so immediately concerned in the education of the Negro race as the South or the Negroes themselves, the northern point of view and northern philanthropy are, at least for the present, as essential to the proper solution

of the vexed problem as the other two elements. Geographical separation from the scene of the problem has been both a weakness and a strength. Northern workers were often unable to understand the difficulties of the situation and they naturally made mistakes. In many respects, however, their remoteness gave them freedom from the traditional prejudices and the frequent irritations to which those nearby were subjected. Problems are rarely solved without the aid of those who are not party to the differences. Evidence is now gradually accumulating that the southern people are realizing that the northern teachers have rendered a valuable service not only to the Negroes but also to the South. The following testimony was given as early as 1885 by Bishop Haygood, of the Southern Methodist Church, to President Ware, the founder of Atlanta University:

Very small encouragement do workers in this field get from us of the white race in the Southern States, although, next to the Negro race, we are of all men on earth most concerned in the success of your work and most concerned because we have most at stake.

A large-minded southern woman has more recently added her appreciation:

The northerners who came down here to teach Negroes were ignorant of our past, of our conditions, of the underlying causes of our new antagonism to the Negroes. They made blunders, of course; and a good many Negroes acquired some knowledge at the expense of more wisdom. And certainly the South never tried to help the situation. So far as explanations or assistance went we maintained a silence which was more than felt, while these from another world came and wrestled with our problems in all good faith, and according to their darkness and their light.

The total annual income for the current expenses of the private schools maintained largely by northern philanthropy aggregates \$2,645,527.¹ Of this \$1,546,303 is expended in the schools controlled largely by white denominational boards and \$1,099,224 in those controlled by independent boards of trustees. Property valuations in the private institutions founded as a result of Northern gifts now amount to \$26,191,892.

Without the institutions thus erected and maintained, the industrial and agricultural education of the colored people would be almost entirely confined to the very limited facilities of the public schools and the inadequate work of the land-grant institutions. Teacher training would be almost negligible, secondary courses would be conspicuously inadequate, and no college work would be offered. While constant effort should be made to induce public authorities to provide for every phase of education, any plan to diminish private support should be adopted only after careful consideration of the local situation. As shown elsewhere, the per capita wealth in the South is below that of other sections of the country. Though the per capita public school expenditures for white children of the Southern States is four and five times that for the Negroes, it is not more than half the per capita for white children in the Northern States. All the available facts indicate that the financial aid of the North will be needed for some decades to come.

Essential as northern philanthropy has been to the education of the Negro, the greatest contribution of the North has been the teachers, sons and daughters of the best families, who have been willing to work in colored schools and to show their colored pupils by precept and example that education is not only head knowledge but the formation of habits that guarantee such fundamental virtues as cleanliness, thoroughness,

¹ This figure does not include the income of schools owned and supervised by colored denominations. The total income of all private schools is \$3,066,000.

perseverance, honesty, and the essential elements of family life. In the conduct and management of colored schools, it is to be expected that the South should stress conformity to the community standards of the white people. The concern of the Negro is naturally the preservation of his self-respect and the increase of opportunities for employment and influence. The concern of the North is the maintenance of such school activities as will produce manhood and womanhood, of good physique, discerning minds, and sound morals. In accordance with this purpose, northern people have erected schools of all types for the Negroes, including industrial, agricultural, and collegiate institutions. No greater loss could befall the Negro schools than the elimination of northern philanthropy and northern teachers. It is the emphatic conclusion of this study of the actual condition of schools for colored people that sound policy requires white management and white teachers to have some part in the education of the race.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF NEGRO EDUCATION.

The striking facts in the study of the financial support of Negro education are, first, the wide divergencies in the per capita of public school expenditures for white and colored children and, second, the extent to which schools for Negroes are dependent upon private aid. These facts are clearly presented in the maps and in the summary chapter of the second volume. Though private aid has been liberally given and a number of the private institutions do very effective work, Negro schools in the aggregate undoubtedly form the most impoverished group of educational institutions in the United States.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURES.

For reasons explained in the chapter on methods and scope, public expenditures have been discussed in this report in terms of teachers' salaries and the per capita sums have been obtained by dividing the amount of total salaries by the number of children 6 to 14 years of age. On this basis the per capita in the Southern States is \$10.32 for each white child and \$2.89 for each colored child. The per capita figures for the different States vary widely. In the border States, where the proportion of Negroes is relatively small, the per capita for Negroes is higher than in the other States. The most striking differences, however, are in the county expenditures. State school funds are apportioned to each county on the basis of population without regard to race. The county officers then divide these funds according to their interpretation of the needs of the white and black pupils. The result of this appears in the following table for the southern counties arranged according to the proportion of Negroes in each county:

County groups, percentage of Negroes in the population.	White teachers' salaries.	Negro teachers' salaries.	Per capita white.	Per capita Negro.
Counties under 10 per cent.	\$7,755,817	\$325,579	\$7.96	\$7.23
Counties 10 to 25 per cent.	9,633,674	1,196,788	9.55	5.55
Counties 25 to 50 per cent.	12,572,666	2,265,945	11.11	3.19
Counties 50 to 75 per cent.	4,574,366	1,167,796	12.53	1.77
Counties 75 per cent and over. . .	888,759	359,800	22.22	1.78

According to this table the per capita in the counties 75 per cent Negro was \$22.22 for each white child and \$1.78 for each colored child. The per capita sums for white children decrease and those for colored children increase with considerable regularity

as the proportion of Negroes becomes smaller. The marked inequalities in the counties 75 per cent Negro are partly explained by the necessity of providing relatively more schools for the scattered white population. The lower wage scale of colored teachers and the lack of high-school provisions also reduce the expenditures for colored schools. It is evident, however, that these explanations by no means account for the wide divergencies of the "black-belt" counties. These divergencies are further emphasized by the fact that the Southern States appropriate annually \$6,429,991 for higher schools for white pupils and only a little over a third of a million for higher schools for colored people. The latter include the agricultural and mechanical schools, largely maintained by Federal funds, and six normal schools of elementary and secondary grade.

A proper appreciation of the significance of these figures requires the consideration of at least two facts. The first is that, although the wealth of the South is at present increasing very rapidly, the South has had to maintain a double system of schools on the comparatively limited resources of a section largely rural and only recently recovered from the burdens of the Civil War. The second fact is that, though the per capita for white pupils in the South is four times that for Negroes, the per capita in most of the Northern States is two and three times that for the white pupils in the South. These facts do not justify the present inequalities between the expenditures for white and colored pupils. They should, however, modify criticism of the situation. When all explanations have been made, the inequalities stand as an emphatic appeal to county, State, and Federal Governments for larger and more definite interest in Negro education. Among the indications of the development of such an interest are the recent improvements in taxation systems of some of the States, the increasing effectiveness of the State departments of instruction, and the general realization of the economic and hygienic importance of the colored people to the South.

PRIVATE FINANCIAL AID.

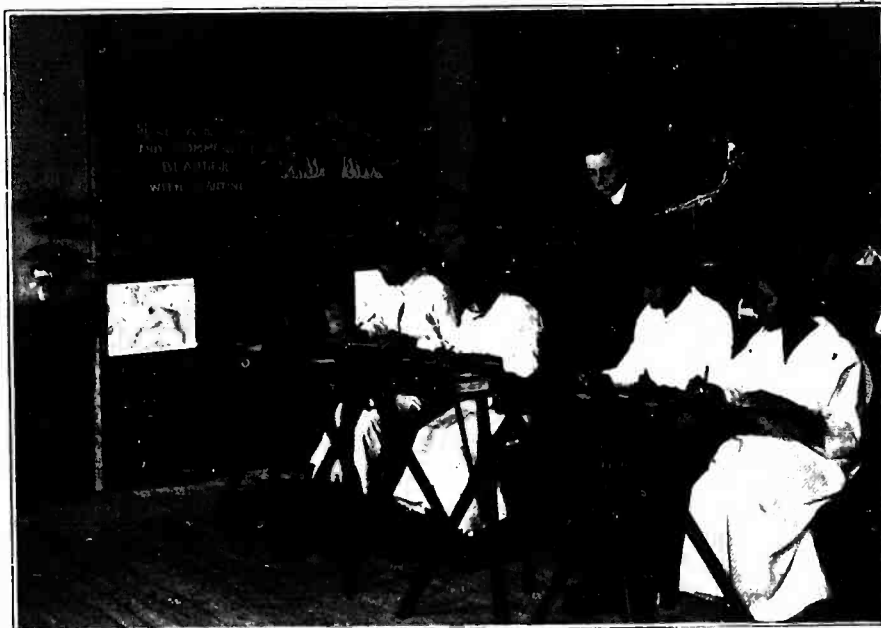
The annual income for current expenses in all private schools for colored people is \$3,026,460.¹ The total value of the plant, equipment, and endowment in private schools for colored people is \$28,496,946. These institutions provide the large proportion of all educational opportunities above the elementary grades. They offer the bulk of all the instruction in agriculture, industry, teacher training, medicine, and religion. Fully one-half of the money that has gone into these schools from private sources has been contributed by the white religious denominations of the North, a third has been given by independent donors and churches, and one-sixth by colored denominations. Southern white denominations maintain two schools for Negroes.

The multiplication of private schools for Negroes and the wide publicity attending gifts from the North have sometimes created the impression that the private funds given to colored schools make up for the inequalities in the public appropriation for the white and colored youth. In view of this impression, it is important to note that a study of private contributions shows that even the private financial resources available for white schools are greater than those for colored schools.

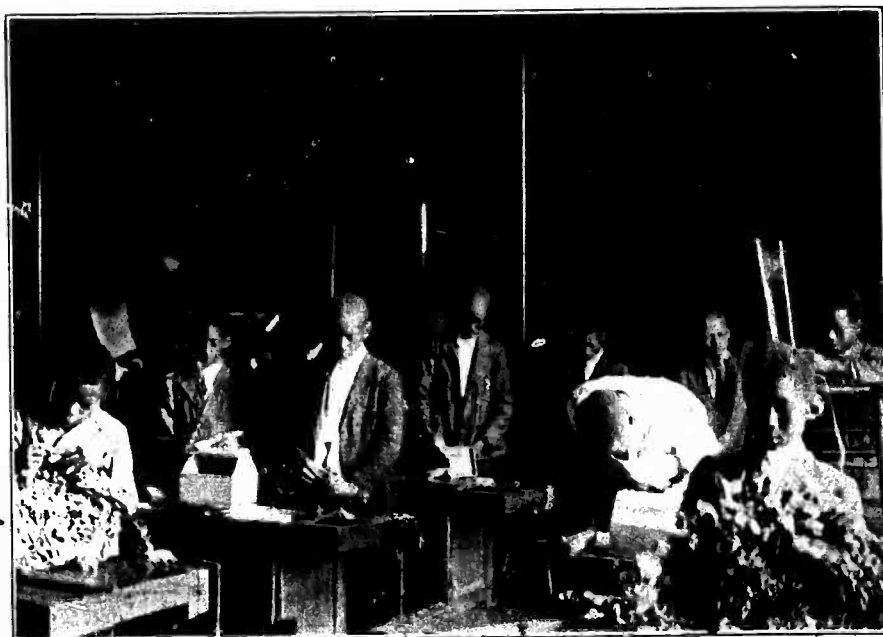
The total number of private schools for colored people is 625. Of these 266 may be regarded as important parts of the educational system of their respective States.²

¹ Includes contributions from both white and colored people.

² See map, p. 16.



A. ART IN COMMON THINGS.



B. SIMPLE MANUAL TRAINING.

The remaining 359 are regarded as comparatively unimportant. Some of them are justified only on denominational grounds. The majority are so hampered by small income or poor management that the States receive little good from them.

In view of the frequency of the terms "academy," "college," and "university," in the names of these institutions, it is important to note that over 75 per cent of all their pupils are elementary. The total attendance in 1914-15 was 83,679, of whom 70,564 were elementary, 11,527 secondary, and only 1,588 of college grade. Though private funds have been given with liberality, the number of pupils in private schools is only 4 per cent of the number of Negro children 6 to 14 years of age and 7 per cent of all children attending elementary schools. It is apparent, therefore, that the masses of the colored people can not be educated in private schools, but must be educated mainly in public or tax-supported schools.

TYPE AND GRADE OF EDUCATION.

Inadequacy and poverty are the outstanding characteristics of every type and grade of education for Negroes in the United States. No form of education is satisfactorily equipped or supported. Despite all limitations, however, much excellent instruction has been given. Through the earnestness and devotion of many noble men and women, who have been willing to teach in Negro schools, the colored people have been able to achieve a degree of progress that promises well for their future. All the chapters of this volume and the reports on the individual schools in Volume II indicate the heroic efforts which have been made in behalf of the Negro. Through these efforts a few of the institutions have developed a kind of education that is now being adopted not only in the United States but in other parts of the world.

Though the facilities for all types and grades of education are strikingly inadequate, a large number of the colored leaders have been much more eager for the literary and collegiate type of school than for the teacher-training, agricultural, or industrial institutions. A number of influences have combined to develop this attitude in the minds of these leaders. They have noted that the educational ideals of the past have been largely literary and collegiate. This observation has been emphasized in the minds of the colored people because the large majority of them live in the South, where the literary phases of education have continued to hold a relatively larger place than in other sections. Owing to the separation of the races, the Negroes have not had the opportunity to observe the increasing attention given to science, industry, and agriculture in education. The widespread movement toward segregation has naturally made the colored people suspicious of any departure from the methods and customs which they think are still emphasized by the white people. This suspicion is further strengthened in their minds by the fact that so many of the new phases of education are designed to increase skill in agricultural and mechanical pursuits. The various forms of economic bondage to which the Negroes have been subjected by white people seem to them ample evidence for their distrust of any economic feature in their schools. As Dr. Booker T. Washington frequently said:

The Negro observed that the people who had education for the most part belonged to the aristocracy, to the master-class, while the people who had little or no education were usually of the class known as "poor whites." In this way education became associated in his mind with leisure, with luxury, and freedom from the drudgery of work with the hands.

AIMS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

While the failure to understand the purposes of industrial and agricultural education is thus easily explained, it has been none the less unfortunate. The real purpose of industrial education, as conceived by Gen. Armstrong and advanced by his pupil, Booker T. Washington, was the adaptation of education, whether literary or industrial, to the needs of the pupil and the community. These men regarded industrial and agricultural skill and practical knowledge of household arts as important by-products of the school activities. The ultimate aim, however, has always been the development of manhood and womanhood, through the common tasks of the common day, as well as through the ordinary school activities. The following words, spoken by Gen. Armstrong as early as 1870, indicate a prophetic understanding of the educational principles and methods that are now being adopted by progressive educators throughout the civilized world:

The education needed is one that touches upon the whole range of life, that aims at the formation of good habits and sound principles, that considers the details of each day, that enjoins in respect to diet, regularity, proper selection, and good cooking; in respect to habits, suitable clothing, exercise, cleanliness of persons and quarters, and ventilation, also industry and thrift; and in respect to all things, intelligent practice and self-restraint.

In all men, education is conditioned not alone on an enlightened head and a changed heart but very largely on a routine of industrious habits, which is to character what the foundation is to the pyramid. The summit should glow with a divine light, interfusing and qualifying the whole mass, but it should never be forgotten that it is only upon a foundation of regular daily activities that there can be any fine and permanent upbuilding. Morality and industry generally go together.

Though the primary aim of industrial education is the development of sound habits of hand and head, the economic advantages are not to be overlooked. No group of people can attain a satisfactory position in life until they are able to make a reasonable contribution to the economic welfare of their community. The moral and civic status is closely related to the economic. The Negroes are at present overwhelmingly in unskilled occupations. A larger percentage of their women and children are working outside the home than is the case with any other group in the United States. While the race has made real progress in the acquisition of property since the Civil War, a much larger proportion of Negro bread winners should be prepared to enter the skilled trades and their economic status should be elevated sufficiently to enable the children to attend school and the women to give more time to the moral and hygienic development of the home. Such a development of the Negroes is not only necessary to the welfare of the race but essential to the progress of every Southern State.

PLACE OF COLLEGE EDUCATION.

The presentation of the educational and economic value of agricultural and industrial training should not be interpreted to be in any sense antagonistic to other phases of education. It is evident that the sound development of 10,000,000 people requires every type of education. The colored people must have well-trained physicians to combat the insanitary conditions, which menace not only the colored people themselves but their white neighbors as well. They need religious teachers who can direct the emotions of the race for the moral uplift of the group and for the improvement of the

community. They require teachers who have a thorough knowledge of the historical progress of races and an appreciation of the sufferings and disappointments through which the nations have struggled to their present position in world affairs. With the increasing separation of the white and colored people in America, the leadership of the Negroes is devolving more and more upon the capable men and women of the race. If college education is necessary to the wise guidance of any group, surely the Negroes should have the benefit of that education.

A number of the schools offering college courses have rendered a most valuable service. This is especially true of the institutions founded and supervised by the cultured men and women who went South to teach in schools for colored people. Though the curricula of these institutions may have frequently seemed to overemphasize the printed page in comparison with the application of knowledge to practical affairs, the daily conduct of teachers trained in the best traditions of American life gave to the colored people a more precious heritage than any type of curriculum could have given.

Unfortunately, most of the schools with college courses are seriously handicapped, not only by inadequate funds but also by the small number of pupils prepared to study college subjects. The facts presented in the chapter on college and professional education show that only three institutions have a student body, a teaching force and equipment, and an income sufficient to warrant the characterization of "college." Nearly half of the college students and practically all the professional students of college grade are in these three institutions. Fifteen other institutions are offering college courses which represent a wide variation of standards. Not more than 10 per cent of the pupils in these schools are in college classes. All of the fifteen institutions mentioned are rendering a valuable educational service and a few of them are really of college grade.

SUGGESTED PROGRAM OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

The extravagant and high-sounding¹ names of a large number of colored schools have led to a misconception of the grade and type of work done by them. Frequently they represent only the hopes of the founders. In other cases the names have been selected to satisfy the ambitions of the colored people or to attract the support of the white people. In these instances, the terms "university," "college," and "literary" usually indicate that the financial support is partly from Negroes; the titles "industrial," "agricultural," and "rural" constitute a bid for sympathy and contributions from white people. Some schools in their eagerness to offer college courses not only hamper their general work but also bring ridicule on efforts to maintain college classes. Other institutions, impressed by the great plants of the large industrial institutions, spend so much energy and money in acquiring machinery and elaborate organizations as to seriously impair their educational efforts.

The general poverty of colored schools, the conflicting claims of various types of education, and the public ignorance of the real situation all point to the importance of a statement of the educational needs of colored people. The following outline, based upon the facts assembled in Volume II of this report, is offered as a suggestion to those whose duty it is to determine the educational policies for colored schools:

¹ For example, "The High Educational College of Glory," of Delaware.

Elementary schools.—Elementary education is peculiarly the responsibility of the public-school authorities. Though the enrollment of the philanthropic schools is 75 per cent elementary, the pupils comprise only 4 per cent of the Negro children 6 to 14 years of age. The Southern States, out of their limited resources, are spending almost \$6,000,000 annually for the salaries of teachers in the colored public schools. While this is proportionately not more than a fourth of that spent on teachers in white schools, it is a substantial sum. In comparison with the needs of the elementary school system, however, it is most inadequate. So long as the elementary school facilities are insufficient, every kind of education above the elementary grades is seriously handicapped and the wellbeing of the community is endangered. The possibilities of night schools for adults should receive serious consideration as one means of overcoming the large amount of Negro illiteracy.

Secondary schools and teacher training.—The primary importance of secondary schools for colored people lies in their contribution to the much needed supply of trained teachers for the elementary schools. According to the State records over 50 per cent of the colored teachers in public schools have an education less than the equivalent of six elementary grades. This lamentable condition can be corrected only by a system of public secondary schools with provision for teacher training, theory and practice of gardening, and manual training. Much effective help could be obtained through the active cooperation of the public secondary schools already organized. One of the most hopeful movements toward teacher training and secondary education is the plan to multiply county training schools as described in the chapter on the preparation of teachers in this report.

College and professional education.—The education of Negroes in America undoubtedly requires institutions that are genuinely of college grade. The first step in the realization of this need is the agreement that all shall combine in an effort to develop a few well-selected institutions. A program for such a cooperation is suggested in the chapter on college education. The second requirement of success in this direction is the determination that every college activity shall be adapted to the demands of modern society. Medical education is already centralized in two institutions. It is highly desirable that some cooperative effort shall also be made to improve the standards of schools for colored ministers. No phase of Negro education has been more neglected.

Agricultural and mechanical schools.—The importance of the preparation of colored youth for the industries and for life in rural communities is self-evident. In view of the overwhelming proportion of Negroes in rural districts, the claims of rural education precede all others. While opportunities for the highly-technical trades should be open to colored pupils, the primary need is emphatically for a knowledge of gardening, small farming, and the simple industries required in farming communities. Though there are a few very effective institutions devoted to the agricultural and mechanical education of the Negroes, they really constitute only a beginning of the supply needed. The number of their graduates is at present only enough to prove the value of the type. An adequate supply will be possible only through the combined effort of public and private resources. State and Federal Governments, through their

general appropriations for agricultural and other forms of vocational education, can render a most effective service to the country by liberal provisions for the education of the Negroes.

Teaching methods.—Elaborate facilities are useless if the teaching methods are ineffective. In actual practice teaching is still too generally regarded as talking or lecturing. With the increasing recognition of the importance of psychology in teaching and the enlarged appreciation of the social significance of education, there is a demand for more consideration of the pupil and the community. The teacher should make every effort to understand the pupil and his needs, his mind processes, his ambitions, his means of support, and his health. He should also know the pupil's home, his community, and, if possible, his vocational outlook. With such knowledge as the basis of instruction, the teacher will not be content with mere lectures to his class. From talking about the subject, he will guide his pupils to observe actual conditions. Observation will be followed by laboratory experiments. The teacher will exchange views with pupils and all will mingle their ideas and their experiences in the search for truth. From the artificial conditions of the class room, pupils and teacher will finally proceed to the actual conditions of real life and together they will "learn to do by doing."

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL

It is to be expected that the administration and control of private schools, differing widely in size and type and scattered over seventeen States, will give rise to a number of perplexing problems. Many of the schools are managed with remarkable economy and efficiency. A few of them are models of organization. It is noteworthy that the institutions directed by women are almost universally well managed. They are clean, systematic, and their work is adapted to the needs of the pupils. A striking illustration is afforded by the school homes maintained by the Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Church. The administration of a large number of schools, however, is seriously hampered by lack of funds and by the ignorance of both officers and trustees. The more common defects in administration are inadequate financial accounts and school records, the careless construction of buildings and failure to repair the plant, elaborate organization of work, and irresponsible or indifferent boards of trustees.

Besides the inefficient schools, there are a few that are clearly fraudulent, maintained solely for the benefit of the so-called president or principal. Reference is made to some of these in the first chapter of the second volume. A philanthropic woman recently sent to the Bureau a list of 11 schools to which she had been contributing for years. Comparison of the list with the facts in this report showed that five of the schools were frauds whose agents spend all their time in soliciting funds from the friends of the colored people. The letter closes with the following significant paragraph:

Representatives of a number of these schools came to me from time to time, some of them once or twice a year, seeking financial assistance. I have given sums ranging from \$5 to \$100, but as their number is increasing and their needs are presented as growing more urgent, and almost none of them issue any financial statement, or publish any report, I am very anxious if possible to learn something of the character of the schools, whether or not they are worthy of support and are properly and economically administered. Indeed in some instances I am doubtful if the funds ever are applied to that object.

The attitude of the representatives of the institutions really rendering educational service is strikingly stated by a colored woman who is the founder and principal of a well-managed school:

By some method, unknown to honest people, these leaders have the confidence of many people who are anxious to help the race, while good, straight, clean, upright men and women are not given a respectful hearing. These promoters of schools and schemes have the one asset that the honest members of the race do not have—they carry their hats under their arms, and grin their way into a corner. Strange as it may seem, thousands of people like this type of Negroes, and will do anything for them.

The principal groups of schools on the basis of ownership and control are (1) the independent schools controlled by separate boards of trustees; (2) schools owned and maintained by colored denominations; (3) schools owned and maintained by white denominations; and (4) the State and Federal schools.

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS.

The most perplexing problems of administration are found in the organization and management of the 114 independent schools, each owned and managed by a separate board of trustees. Their annual income is \$1,099,224 and the value of their property is \$12,369,441. Of the total number 46 are classed in this report as *large or important* and 72 as *small or unimportant*. Each institution is a law unto itself. The group undoubtedly includes the extremes of good and bad management. While the majority of the schools are honestly conducted, a number of them are merely existing and a few are brazen frauds imposing upon the philanthropy of Northern donors.

The fundamental weakness of this group of schools is their dependence upon trustee boards too generally composed of persons who often do not know the real condition of the school itself and rarely have any appreciation of its relation to similar institutions in the same community. Some of the boards are merely nominal. A favorite method is to appoint colored men as the legal trustees and ask prominent white men to act in an advisory capacity. The usual result of this arrangement is to leave the management entirely to the principal, who in a number of cases has wrecked the institution. In a few instances the property is held in the name of the principal. The property thus held in one instance was valued at \$60,000 and at the death of the principal was transferred to his heirs, who immediately mortgaged the property and involved the school in a hopeless legal entanglement.

Next to an effective board of trustees, independent schools should require an adequate system of cost-accounting and an annual audit by an accountant of unquestioned ability and honesty. At present few of these institutions have any real systems of records and accounts. It is clear to all thoughtful people that donations to institutions without a satisfactory system of accounting are of very doubtful wisdom. A system of student records is almost as essential as a financial statement. These records should show such facts as daily attendance, class standing, and punctuality of the pupils.

Many of the independent schools have been extravagant in the erection of buildings and the purchase of equipment. They have appealed for plants without adequate regard for the work of neighboring institutions or the needs of their communities. It is the emphatic conclusion of this study that the organizing of additional independent

schools is to be seriously questioned. On this point the late Dr. [redacted] T. Washington declared:

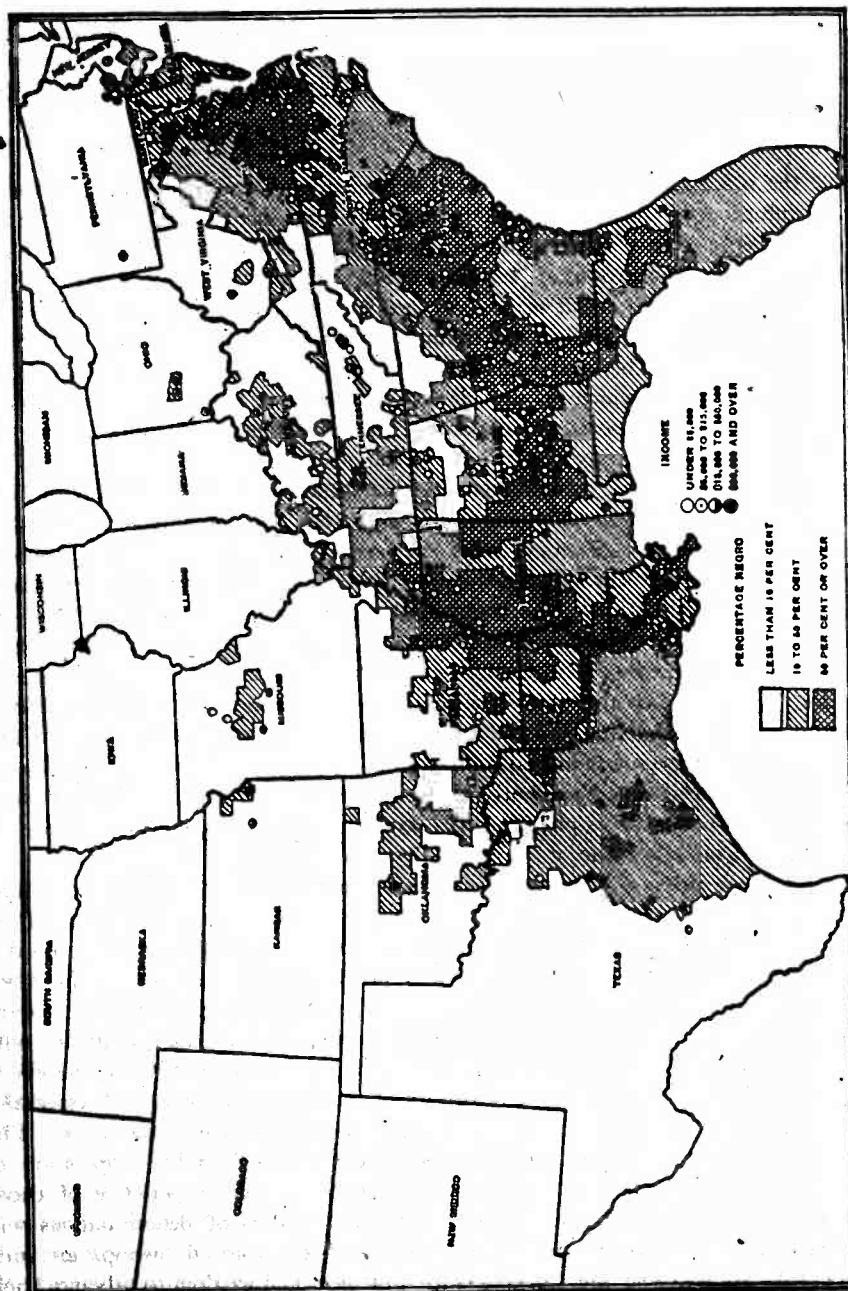
It is the consensus of opinion of all who have studied the subject that the time has come when money ought to be concentrated upon the strengthening of existing institutions rather than the starting of new ones. In many cases much harm has been done by establishing additional schools in the same locality.

SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

While the schools maintained by colored denominations are remarkable evidences of the determination of the Negro people not only to help themselves but also to have a voice in the education of their children, the organization and administration of a large number of these institutions are seriously deficient in a number of respects. These defects are in the main the result of poverty and ignorance. In a few instances there are indications that shrewd leaders are taking advantage of the ignorance and trustfulness of the illiterate. The total number of schools owned and maintained by colored denominations is 153, of which 60 are classed as "large or important" and 93 are regarded as "small or unimportant" schools. Their annual income is \$380,933 and the total value of property is \$2,305,054.

The most common defect of administration in these schools is the failure to keep satisfactory financial records. The money is collected from hundreds of churches and passed on to the school officers in ways that are difficult to record. At the school there is often divided authority between the principal and the treasurer, who is primarily an officer of the denomination. The books kept are frequently crude and almost entirely lacking in adequate checks on either income or expenditures. The audit is almost always made by a committee of ministers and laymen who have practically no qualifications for the work. Another weakness that is very general is the erection of buildings without adequate planning and the failure to care for plant and equipment. The lack of supervision is apparent in many phases of the work. Teachers and pupils are allowed too much freedom. Frequently there is no provision for a record of work and attendance. Some schools provided with systems of records keep them so irregularly that they are of little value.

With all these defects, however, these institutions are very much worth while. As efforts of a race to struggle upward, they deserve to be encouraged. First of all the denominations themselves need to provide for more centralization of authority. They must select as school officers not church politicians but men known for their integrity and their power to supervise. These men must then be protected by modern methods of accounting and school records. Once a year, at least, an accountant who is entirely independent of the denomination should be employed to examine every financial transaction. Educational authorities of undoubted ability and especially the State school officers should be invited to inspect every phase of the work. The second step in the improvement of these institutions is the friendly cooperation of public and philanthropic boards interested in education. The experience of those engaged in this study indicates that the bishops and officers of denominations will heartily welcome such cooperation. The majority of the colored bishops are men of considerable ability, who are working with patience and wisdom to advance their people.



MAP 2.—LOCATION OF THE MORE IMPORTANT PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES.

SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONS.

The schools of white denominations are more economically and intelligently managed than those of either of the groups hitherto described. The total number of these schools is 354, of which 160 are classed as large and 194 as small or unimportant. Their annual income is \$1,546,303 and the total value of property \$13,822,451.

The larger denominations maintain central offices and one or more traveling secretaries whose duties include both the supervision of the schools and the appeal for funds to the supporting churches. The traveling secretaries are men and women of educational experience and some business ability. The institutions are required to make regular reports of both finances and school activities. This supervision has, as a rule, developed economy and honesty in the use of current income and equipment and insisted on some degree of thoroughness in the school work undertaken. It must be said, however, that the denominations differ widely in the effectiveness of their supervision, and also that some of them are maintaining a number of schools of doubtful value.

The prevailing limitation of this group is the conservatism of their educational and financial policies. Very few of them have introduced modern systems of accounting and the majority of them have been content with the traditional means and methods of education. They have been slow to adapt their educational efforts to the needs of pupils and communities. Though the denominations have given large sums of money, the schools have been cramped for equipment and the teachers have received less than a living wage. Even with these limitations, however, the white denominations have rendered a most valuable service to the Negro race and to the South—one of the noblest ever rendered by the Christian Church in any land. It is to be hoped that it may be continued with the increasing cooperation of philanthropy and government until the State shall make it an integral part of the public school system.

STATE AND FEDERAL INSTITUTIONS.

In addition to the private or philanthropic schools already described, there are 28 State and Federal institutions of secondary and higher grade. The total annual income of these institutions is \$563,611, and the value of their property is \$5,727,609. One of these institutions is Howard University, receiving over half its annual income from the Federal Government. It is carefully supervised by a board of trustees with the cooperation of the Department of the Interior. There are 11 schools almost entirely supported by their respective States. The other 16 institutions are maintained jointly by the Federal and State Governments. They are sometimes known as the land-grant or agricultural and mechanical schools. Their annual income is \$544,520, of which \$259,851 is received from Federal appropriations¹ and \$263,074 from the States. The value of their property is \$2,576,142.

The administration of these 16 agricultural and mechanical schools has not been satisfactory. Only two or three of them have an adequate system of financial records. Building operations have been fairly well conducted. The educational work has been left almost entirely to the school principals, the majority of whom have organized their courses to satisfy the wishes of the colored people rather than in conformity with the purposes for which the Federal appropriations were made.

¹ Hampton Institute also receives \$46,996 from these appropriations.

PRESENT NEEDS AND RECENT MOVEMENTS IN EDUCATION.

The consensus of opinion of thoughtful people, South and North, and the facts presented in this report clearly indicate the soundness of the following conclusions:

(1) That there is a pressing need for increased public school facilities for Negroes. With increased public facilities, it is exceedingly desirable that the State departments of education invite the cooperation of all private institutions in the work of educating the Negro. Initiative in this cooperation naturally rests with the State.

(2) That the aid of philanthropy be continued with the present liberality until the South has attained to a better economic condition. The effectiveness of this aid will be increased in proportion to the cooperation developed with public school authorities.

(3) That all education shall stress, first, the development of character, including the simple but fundamental virtues of cleanliness, order, perseverance, and the qualities essential to the home, and second, adaptation to the needs of the pupil and the community. This adaptation requires a leadership that has some grasp of the great historic movements of civilization. Only such a leadership for both the white and the black people can interpret the groups to each other.

(4) That supervision of both public and private educational efforts shall be increased, so that all agencies may be correlated with each other, sound business methods established, organization of work suited to income and plant, and building operations conducted with economy and good taste.

EARLY EFFORTS IN NEGRO EDUCATION.

In view of the intensity of the feeling developed by the Civil War and reconstruction days, it is not surprising that the needs outlined above still exist. Heroic characters, men and women, from the North and from the South, have long struggled to meet these needs. Among those from the North are the names of Howard, Ware, Cravath, and Armstrong; from the South, Bishop Haygood, Supt. Ruffner of Virginia, and Dr. Curry. These are some of those who, together with many cultured, refined women, came and applied themselves with a large vision of humanity to the task of educating the Negroes recently freed from slavery.

RECENT MOVEMENTS.

With full appreciation of all that was done in the decades immediately following the Civil War, it now remains to outline the constructive movements of recent years. The church boards still continue their work for humanity. The secretaries of the boards are men of character and wisdom. Their school officers are sincere men and women who are doing their best with funds entrusted to them.

Many agencies have contributed directly or indirectly to the new tendencies in Negro education now to be observed. Of these the more important are the General Education Board, the Conference for Education in the South, the Southern Education Board, the Jeanes Fund and the Slater Fund, the Rosenwald rural school building donations, the Phelps Stokes Fund, the Conference of Church Boards' Secretaries, the Southern University Race Commission, the Negro Branches of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the training classes of the Sunday School Associations, the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, and the Association

of Negro Colleges. The purposes and methods of these organizations are described in the chapter on "Educational Funds and Associations."

Conference for Education in the South.—The historic development of the recent movements to increase cooperation between the South and the North, and between whites and Negroes, is one of the most significant chapters in American history. Here only a brief outline can be given of this development. Its origin is distinctly traceable to the conference at Capon Springs, Va., in 1898, the first of a series of meetings of Southern and Northern men and women prominent in educational and religious affairs having for their aim the discussion of the economic, social, and educational problems of the South.

The spirit and general purpose of the first Capon Springs conference are indicated by the fact that it was the direct result of the inspiration received by Dr. Hollis B. Frissell and the Rev. Edward Abbot while they were attending the famous Mohonk Conference. It was their wish that somewhere in the South there should be an annual assembly of large-minded, far-visioned men and women who could help create sound public opinion on the relations of races and on education in general. How well they succeeded, thoughtful people are beginning to realize.

The next step was the entrance of Robert C. Ogden, who had been a life-long friend of Gen. Armstrong and Dr. Frissell, and a trustee of Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute. His statesmanship and executive ability developed the Conference for Education in the South into a power for cooperation between the North and South that has outranked all other influences in this direction. The more immediate result, however, was the stimulation of the Southern States to an interest that has achieved unsurpassed progress in the education of the white children. Unfortunately direct benefit to the Negroes from this great advance has been limited. The indirect results, however, are both permanent and significant. The important advantages are a more friendly attitude toward public and private schools for Negroes, the development of cooperation between all parties interested in the colored people, and the organization of such definite agencies for Negro education as State supervision of Negro schools, county industrial teachers, county training schools, home and school gardening clubs, and farm demonstration agents. It is not to be understood that the Conference for Education in the South or the Southern Education Board created or organized these agencies, but rather that definite achievements of this type were made possible by men who were brought together by the conference.

General Education Board.—The guiding principle of the General Education Board in all its efforts in behalf of Negro education is cooperation, first of all with public authorities and, second, with agencies that are thoroughly constructive in purpose. The secretaries have been men of ability and foresight. The board's most important undertaking in behalf of Negro schools is cooperation with the Southern States in the appointment and maintenance of State supervisors of Negro schools. Ten States have already made such appointments. These supervisors are capable southern men who are devoting their energy with much success to the advancement of Negro schools. Their efforts have already resulted in small but significant increases in public appropriations, a better attitude toward Negro education, and more cooperation between public and private

institutions. While the farm demonstration movement encouraged by the General Education Board was more largely among the white people, its influence on the life of the rural Negroes indicates great possibilities for the future.

Jeanes and Slater Funds.—The Jeanes and Slater Funds are under the direction of Dr. J. H. Dillard, a native of Virginia and formerly a professor in Tulane University. The main purpose of both funds is cooperation with State authorities in the development of public school facilities for Negroes in the Southern States. The Slater Fund, established in 1882, has been largely used to make possible normal and industrial courses in private institutions. At present the income of the Fund is being gradually redirected to assist county school officers in the maintenance of central schools and training institutes to prepare teachers for elementary schools. Through the combined efforts of the Slater Fund, the General Education Board, and public authorities, 44 of these central schools have been established. While these are as yet little more than elementary in grade, they have been very successful in arousing the educational interest of both white and colored people.

The Jeanes Fund devotes its resources to a plan of cooperation with county superintendents for the appointment and maintenance of industrial supervising teachers. These teachers are usually young colored women who travel among the rural schools, encouraging the local teachers in all phases of their work, but especially in the adaptation of the school activities to the needs of the pupils.

Origin of Jeanes Fund and Phelps-Stokes Fund.—The Jeanes Fund was established by Miss Anna T. Jeanes, a Quaker lady of Philadelphia. Miss Jeanes first gave \$10,000 to Dr. Frissell to be used in improving small rural schools for Negroes. Afterwards she gave another \$10,000 to Dr. Booker T. Washington for the same purpose. At the suggestion of Mr. George Foster Peabody, then treasurer of the General Education Board, she gave \$200,000 to that board to be used under the direction of Dr. Frissell and Dr. Washington. Shortly before her death she gave a large part of her fortune, \$1,000,000, the disposition of the sum to be controlled by a board of trustees to be selected by those who had directed the other gifts. This board is composed of five Southern men, five Northern men, and five men of the Negro race.

Phelps-Stokes Fund.—The Phelps-Stokes Fund, with an endowment of nearly \$1,000,000, was the result of a bequest by Miss Caroline Phelps Stokes. The purposes of this foundation are indicated by Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes in the preface of this report.¹ Miss Stokes and her sister, Miss Olivia E. Phelps Stokes, had traveled widely among different nations. Their writings and their gifts indicate both a deep sympathy for all belated peoples and a keen practical interest in their improvement. In accordance with this spirit, the trustees are devoting the proceeds of the fund in constructive activities that are based on both sympathy and knowledge.

Religious organizations.—Frequent and extensive reference has been made to the liberal contributions of the numerous missionary boards. The schools maintained by these boards provide a large and vital part of the facilities for the education of Negroes. At the suggestion of Dr. Dillard, the secretaries of these boards, together with the officers

¹ See p. 12.

of other educational funds, meet semiannually to discuss means and methods of cooperation. This meeting is known as the Conference of Boards' Representatives. Through these conferences duplication in school work is being eliminated, sham in name and curriculum eradicated, and adaptation to educational needs increased.

Other religious organizations interested in the education of the Negroes are the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, and the International Sunday School Association. Each of these maintains one or more traveling agents who visit educational institutions for colored people and organize local associations whose influence in character-development is noteworthy.

Educational associations.—Within the past few years two important educational associations of colored schools and their workers have been formed. The National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools corresponds in purpose and organization to the National Educational Association. The annual meetings are of constantly increasing value. State associations have been formed in a number of Southern States. Another organization worthy of note is the Association of Colleges for Negro Youth, which aims to encourage the maintenance of college standards. The meetings of this association are devoted to the discussion of every phase of college work, including administration as well as curriculum.

Southern University Race Commission and Related Movements in the South.—Such movements as the Southern Sociological Congress, the Southern University Race Commission and the Y. M. C. A. study classes on race questions in the white colleges of the South, are all forces indicating clearly a decided tendency to recognize the larger responsibilities in race relationships. Each of the movements includes some of the most intellectual as well as the most influential personalities of the South. The broad vision of the University Commission has been illustrated by the quotation in the first part of this chapter. More significant than the words and works of these larger movements are the kindly contacts between white and colored neighbors that will never be known. These are the personal loans to buy land or purchase a home, or to send a boy to school. They are the words of encouragement in time of trouble; or advice on puzzling family problems. They are the favors and friendly exchanges between individuals of the two races, too numerous and varied to enumerate. In these little actions, as in the larger achievements, there is a promise of that degree of public cooperation necessary to the effective education of the Negroes.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF BOOKER T. WASHINGTON TO EDUCATION.

Any summary of recent movements in the education of the Negroes would be incomplete that failed to include the remarkable service of Booker T. Washington. The following words, written by Dr. Washington shortly before his death, clearly express the program to which he devoted his life so successfully:

It has been necessary to demonstrate to the white man in the South that education does not "spoil" the Negro, as it had been so often predicted that it would. It has been necessary to make the masses of the Negroes realize the importance of applying what they learned in school to the common and ordinary things of life; to see that education, far from being a means of escaping labor, is a means of dignifying labor and thus indirectly the means of dignifying the common and ordinary man.

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It is little wonder that men of the South and the North of both races united in sincere appreciation of Dr. Washington's untiring service to humanity. Col. Henry Watter-son fittingly expressed the southern attitude when he said:

No man since the war of the sections has exercised such beneficence for the country, especially the South.

COOPERATION OF THE THREE ELEMENTS.

Though the movements herein outlined are but slender beginnings, they are deeply significant. They indicate that democracy's plan for the solution of the race problem in the Southland is not primarily in the philanthropies and wisdom of northern people; nor is it in the desires and struggles of the colored people; nor yet in the first-hand knowledge and daily contacts of the southern white people. Democracy's plan is in the combination of the best thought and the deepest sympathy and the most abiding faith of these three groups working with mutual faith in one another.

II. PUBLIC SCHOOL FACILITIES.

Public schools for Negroes have shared comparatively little in the educational advance that has taken place in the Southern States during the past 15 years. At the present time, however, the more progressive leaders of thought in the South are realizing that the economic, hygienic, and moral welfare of that section requires at least the elementary education of the Negro, including a knowledge of industry and the laws of health. Some measure of the comparative status of public schools for Negroes may be obtained from the following statement of teachers' salaries in typical Northern and Southern States:

	Amount of teachers' salaries. ¹	Number of children 6 to 14.	Per capita for each child.
Northern States—All children:			
California.....	\$11,381,662	313,584	\$36.30
New York.....	36,169,811	1,423,729	25.40
Massachusetts.....	12,991,737	519,454	25.01
New Jersey.....	9,266,170	420,635	22.03
Ohio.....	15,243,563	773,270	19.71
Wisconsin.....	7,001,946	443,787	15.78
Southern States—All children:			
Maryland.....	2,849,540	230,462	12.36
Kentucky.....	3,790,572	464,128	8.17
Virginia.....	3,188,746	440,804	7.23
Alabama.....	2,895,727	476,731	6.07
South Carolina.....	1,759,182	357,509	4.92
North Carolina.....	2,056,850	494,589	4.16
Southern States—White children:			
Maryland.....	2,567,021	188,147	13.79
Kentucky.....	3,389,354	417,081	8.13
Virginia.....	2,767,365	286,973	9.64
Alabama.....	2,523,550	268,283	9.41
South Carolina.....	1,454,098	145,384	10.00
North Carolina.....	1,715,994	325,555	5.27
Southern States—Negro children:			
Maryland.....	282,519	44,315	6.38
Kentucky.....	401,208	47,047	8.53
Virginia.....	421,381	153,827	2.74
Alabama.....	372,177	208,548	1.78
South Carolina.....	305,084	212,125	1.44
North Carolina.....	340,856	169,034	2.02

Teachers' salaries for each child 6 to 14 years of age ranged from \$15.78 to \$36.30 for all pupils in the Northern and Western States represented in this table, and from \$5.27 to \$13.79 for white pupils and from \$1.44 to \$8.53 for colored pupils in the South-

¹ Figures for Northern States are for the year 1910-11; those for Southern States for 1911-12. Later figures are available for only certain States. For purposes of comparison it was desirable to have figures as close as possible to the census year.

ern States here listed. It is important to note in studying these figures that the South is maintaining a double system of schools on finances limited both by the poverty of rural conditions and by ineffective systems of taxation. In consequence, the per capita expenditure for white children in the South is low as compared with other parts of the country. Nevertheless the per capita expenditure for Negro schools, by whatever standard measured, is utterly inadequate. Lack of funds affords ample explanation for the following statements made by representative Southern school men concerning the condition and needs of Negro education:

The Negro schoolhouses are miserable beyond all description. Most of the teachers are absolutely untrained. I have found only one in which the highest class knew the multiplication table.

We must put more money into our Negro schools in order that they may have more decent buildings, more inspiring surroundings, better equipment, and longer school terms.

We need better trained teachers. The average Negro teacher has such little training that he would not be able to comprehend what you meant if you talked about the school being an agency for social uplift. But these teachers are giving more than that for which they are paid. Why should we expect to get all the virtues of a trained intellect, a skillful hand, and a consecrated heart, all combined in the person of a Negro teacher whom we pay the handsome stipend of \$22.48 per month, or the princely fortune of \$80.92 for the whole school term, as in the case of one State?

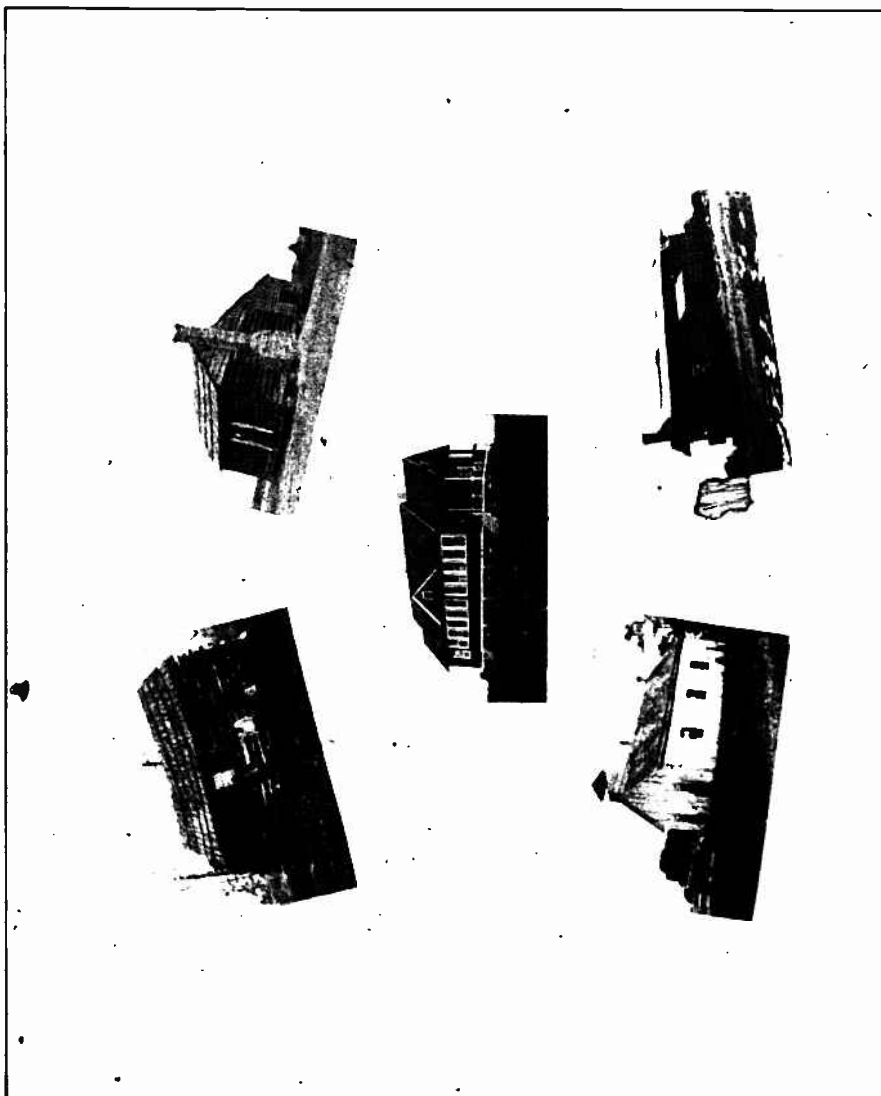
We must have better school supervision. If the white teacher in a city, with good training, splendid equipment, the stimulus of fellow teachers, needs the careful supervision of a city superintendent, how much more does the poorly trained Negro teacher, working alone in the country, with no equipment, little encouragement, no inspiration from fellow teachers—how much more does she need careful supervision, inspiration, and direction!

Private funds for the education of the Negro have been given with great liberality, but at best this aid can only be supplementary. The foundation of all educational endeavor must be the public-school system. The pupils in the private schools constitute only 4 per cent of the Negro children 6 to 14 years of age and 7 per cent of the pupils attending elementary schools. The proper sphere of private schools is the support of special phases of education. Under present conditions in the South many of the private schools are compelled to undertake work that is not suited to their facilities. With an adequate public-school system, these private institutions could devote their income and equipment much more effectively to the improvement of the Negro race, and therefore to the assistance of the South.

Fortunately there are now several hopeful movements that are directly concerned with the public schools. The chief of these are the cooperation of the State departments of education and the General Education Board in the maintenance of State supervisors of Negro schools, the Jeanes Fund plan of county industrial teachers, the Slater Fund campaign to organize county training schools, the Rosenwald rural school building activities, and the increased provision for teacher training in the private institutions for colored people. Several of the Southern States have recently enacted important legislative changes which provide for increased funds for education and better methods of appointing school officers and teachers. The most notable of these changes are in Maryland, Louisiana, Alabama, and Texas. It is probable that some improvements in the colored schools will result from this legislation. Numerous examples of excellent public provision for the education of the Negro will be found in the second volume. The more striking of these are the industrial schools of Columbus, Ga., and Charleston, S. C., and the high schools of Texas and the border States. The Southern Education

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BUREAU OF EDUCATION.



TYPES OF RURAL SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Association in 1907 prepared the following remarkable set of recommendations on Negro education:

We indorse the accepted policy of the States of the South in providing educational facilities for the youth of the Negro race, believing that whatever the ultimate solution of this grievous problem may be, education must be an important factor in that solution.

We believe that the education of the Negro in the elementary branches of education should be made thorough, and should include specific instruction in hygiene and home sanitation, for the better protection of both races.

We believe that in the secondary education of Negro youth emphasis should be placed on agriculture and the industrial occupations, including nurse training, domestic science, and home economics.

We believe that for practical, economical, and psychological reasons Negro teachers should be provided for Negro schools.

We advise instruction in normal schools and normal institutions by white teachers, whenever possible, and closer supervision of courses of study and methods of teaching in Negro normal schools by the State department of education.

We recommend that in urban and rural Negro schools there should be closer and more thorough supervision, not only by city and county superintendents, but also by directors of music, drawing, manual training, and other special topics.

We urge upon school authorities everywhere the importance of adequate buildings, comfortable seating, and sanitary accommodations for Negro youth.

We deplore the isolation of many Negro schools, established through motives of philanthropy, from the life and sympathies of the communities in which they are located. We recommend the supervision of all such schools by the State, and urge that their work and their methods be adjusted to the civilization in which they exist, in order that the maximum good of the race and of the community may be thereby attained.

On account of economic and psychological difference in the two races, we believe that there should be a difference in courses of study and methods of teaching, and that there should be such an adjustment of school curricula as shall meet the evident needs of Negro youth.

We insist upon such an equitable distribution of the school funds that all the youth of the Negro race shall have at least an opportunity to receive the elementary education provided by the State, and in the administration of State laws, and in the execution of this educational policy, we urge patience, tolerance, and justice.

SOUTHERN WELFARE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES.

The future development of the Southern States in industry, in agriculture, in sanitation, and in morality requires the effective education, not only of the white youth but also of the colored youth of those States. The high death rate of the Negroes, largely due to ignorance and low economic status, is a menace to themselves and to the communities in which they live. Since the Negroes now constitute at least a third of the southern labor supply, their lack of industrial skill will hamper the economic development of the South so long as adequate public-school facilities are not provided. The high percentage of illiteracy among Negroes is not only a measure of ill-health but also an indication of moral limitations and consequent dangers to the welfare of the colored race, as well as to that of its white neighbors. A well-known Southern writer says:

It has never been found in all the world that a sane and thorough intellectual equipment has been detrimental to morals or to industrial efficiency. The Negro is no exception to this rule. It is not the educated Negro that fills our penitentiary and jails, works in our chain gangs, and fills our poorhouses. These places are given over to the ignorant and depraved. It is not the educated Negro that makes up our idle and vagrant class, that commits our murders, and despoils our women. Here again it is the

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illiterate and degraded Negro. The trained Negro lives in a better home, wears better clothes, eats better food, does more efficient work, creates more wealth, rears his children more decently, makes a more decent citizen, and in times of race friction is always to be found on the side of law and order. These things seem to be worthy fruits, and whatever system produces them should have our approval. If we are to be fair to ourselves, fair to the section in which we live, and fair to the Negro race, we must see that a common-school education is given to the majority, and that a more thorough and complete training shall be given to the capable few who are to become the leaders of this race.

HEALTH AND PUBLIC EDUCATION.

The urgency of the need for public elementary schools for the colored race is indicated by the high death rate, by the large proportion of Negroes in the total population, and by the proximity of the two races both in habitation and occupation. According to the census, the death rate for some of the more important cities in 1910 and 1900 was as follows:

	Death rate, 1910.		Death rate, 1900.	
	Negro.	White.	Negro.	White.
NORTHERN CITIES.				
Boston, Mass.	23.3	17.1	26.9	20.3
Chicago, Ill.	24.3	15.0	23.6	15.2
Cincinnati, Ohio.	28.9	16.7	29.7	17.6
Indianapolis, Ind.	25.0	15.4	24.0	16.3
Kansas City, Mo.	27.1	14.7	24.9	15.3
New York, N. Y.	25.9	15.8	32.1	20.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	26.9	16.8	30.2	20.4
Pittsburgh, Pa.	23.4	17.7	25.8	19.2
St. Louis, Mo.	26.0	15.1	30.9	17.1
SOUTHERN CITIES.				
Atlanta, Ga.	25.4	15.5	27.3	18.6
Baltimore, Md.	30.6	17.2	33.5	19.2
Charleston, S. C.	39.3	18.9	44.4	22.9
Jacksonville, Fla.	24.0	16.8	32.8	26.6
Louisville, Ky.	26.7	14.4	27.3	16.9
Memphis, Tenn.	28.3	16.8	24.4	20.7
Mobile, Ala.	29.4	17.7	33.1	22.5
Nashville, Tenn.	26.0	15.0	32.1	18.8
Norfolk, Va.	30.8	16.5	38.1	18.8
New Orleans, La.	32.8	17.2	41.0	21.2
Raleigh, N. C.	33.4	24.4	39.7	23.1
Richmond, Va.	30.2	18.1	37.7	23.7
Savannah, Ga.	34.1	19.4	38.1	23.4
Washington, D. C.	29.1	15.8	31.0	18.3

The 1910 death rate for Negroes in the registration area was 24 per 1,000 persons as against 15 per 1,000 for the white people. Such a high death rate is much more significant to the Nation in the case of the Negroes than in the case of any immigrant group. This conclusion is based upon the fact that the colored people far outnumber any foreign group and relatively few immigrants are working and living in such close proximity to the native white people of the land. While the high mortality rate of Negroes is the result of a number of causes, probably no single factor is more important than the lack of public education. A race that is 30 per cent illiterate necessarily suffers more from almost all diseases than the more intelligent groups.

ECONOMIC PROGRESS AND PUBLIC EDUCATION.

The vital relation of economic prosperity to public education is discussed at length in the chapter on "Industrial Education." The extent to which the South is dependent upon Negro labor is shown in that discussion. The situation is clearly presented by Jackson Davis, of Virginia, in an address before the Southern Education Association:

Negroes, either as tenants, owners, or laborers, cultivate farms in the South with an area of 100,000,000 acres. This is an area equal to four times that of the State of Virginia. Much of this land, as we know, is cultivated in the very poorest fashion. Much of it is waste and much of it has been worn out, so that it is below the level of profitable cultivation. We shall have a one-sided civilization as long as we have twentieth century methods in our cities and eighteenth century methods on our farms. We can not afford to neglect any class of our people, for neglect breeds ignorance, waste, and crime. Suppression is a policy that works both ways. If we deny the Negro the training which he needs to make a better man and a better farmer, we suppress our rural life and bring down our average to a lower level, and we continue to have him wear out the soil, which is our greatest natural wealth. Training of the right kind that will replace obsolete methods with intelligent methods, that will replace insanitary cabins with respectable homes, neglected shacks with attractive schoolhouses, a superstitious religion with an intelligent work for the coming of the Kingdom of God on earth—this is the rural civilization which some think must be wrought as by a miracle, but which nevertheless seems to be slowly evolving as a result of the new type of education.

DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL FUNDS

In view of the importance of the public-school education of Negro children both to the Negro race and to the economic and moral welfare of the South, effort has been made to obtain an accurate financial measure of the interest in this phase of education. The two elements used as a basis of this measurement are, first, the total teachers' salaries appropriated by the State and the local public units and, second, the United States Census enumeration of children 6 to 14 years of age in 1910. The teachers' salaries were selected because the public records report this item with greater accuracy and uniformity than other expenditures. For purposes of comparisons between States they vary less on account of local conditions than the expenditures for building material, heat, light, and other articles necessary to general maintenance. It is well known, for example, that the cost of lumber, brick, and stone depends very much on the local supply. Salaries are also less subject to changes and manipulation through poor administrative management. The number of children between 6 and 14 years of age was chosen because it represents the minimum of those for whose education ample public provision should be made in any section of the United States. The United States Census enumeration was used for the reason that no other count is made with sufficient accuracy and uniformity. State and local school censuses are, to say the least, too irregular for purposes of State comparisons. The use of the 1910 census figures has made necessary the selection of the State salary appropriations for the years nearest to 1910 rather than the later appropriations which were available in a few States. For purposes of comparison between white and colored, however, the use of the 1911-12 or the 1912-13 appropriations are more accurate than the later figures. The later figures would probably show some increase in the per capita expenditures for white and colored, but the ratio between the two would be practically the same. The few changes noted in this respect have usually shown a more rapid increase for the white than for the colored.

The per capita figures shown both on the maps of Volume II and in the text of this report are obtained by dividing the total amount of salaries by the number of children 6 to 14 years of age. The per capita figures are uniformly higher in the border States, which have a smaller proportion of Negroes, than in the "black belt" States farther South. This is partly due to the wider distribution of Negroes in the border States and the consequent necessity of providing a larger number of schools with but few pupils. It is also explained by the fact that the border States provide a larger number of high schools for the colored pupils. There is a striking parallelism between the right of the Negro to vote in these border States and the better school facilities provided.

The suggestion has been made that the per capita expenditure based on attendance or enrollment should also be computed. This figure would undoubtedly be valuable, if reliable attendance statistics could be obtained. Unfortunately the enrollment and the attendance figures are neither accurate nor uniform. As a measure of financial interest in the schools a per capita figure based on enrollment is by no means as significant as one based on population of school age, because the enrollment is to a considerable extent dependent upon the appropriations made.

Though there is considerable difference among the States in the amount of per capita expenditures for white and colored, the divergence among counties is much greater. An accurate knowledge of the distribution of school funds between races requires a study of the method of apportionment to counties. In practically all the Southern States the State funds are assigned to the counties on the basis of total population without regard to race. In this way a large Negro population is as much of an asset to a county school system as the white population. These funds are then divided between the races by the county board of education and supplemented by such local taxes as the county may decide to vote. The appropriations for Negro schools are therefore almost entirely dependent upon the local sentiment of the white school board. The actual results of this procedure are shown in detail on the State maps in Volume II and summarized in the following table for the 1,055 counties where the per capita expenditures by race were available:

County groups, percentage of Negroes in the population.	White school population.	Negro school population.	Per capita white.	Per capita Negro.
Counties under 10 per cent.....	974,289	45,039	\$7.96	\$7.23
Counties 10 to 25 per cent.....	1,008,372	215,774	9.55	5.55
Counties 25 to 50 per cent.....	1,132,999	709,259	11.11	3.19
Counties 50 to 75 per cent.....	364,990	661,329	12.53	1.77
Counties 75 to 100 per cent.....	40,003	207,900	22.22	1.78

According to this table the inequalities are greatest in the counties where the population is over 75 per cent Negro. In these counties the per capita for the teachers of 40,003 white pupils is \$22.22 and the per capita for the teachers of 207,900 colored children is \$1.78. These counties and those of the group "50 to 75 per cent Negro" are the predominantly rural sections known usually as the "black belts." Here the colored children are crowded into one-room country schools, while the more scattered white children are provided with a proportionately larger number of schools. The per capita sums for Negro children increase and those for white children decrease as the proportion of Negroes becomes smaller. The higher per capita for Negroes in the 25 to 50 per cent group is partly due to the fact that this group includes most of the larger

southern cities with their better school facilities. The comparatively high per capita figures for colored children in the counties under 25 per cent are due to the larger cost of maintaining schools for a scattered population. Much of the difference between the per capita for white and colored children is explained by the very superior high-school facilities for white pupils and also by the higher wage scale for white teachers. It is apparent, however, that these explanations by no means account for the wide divergences in the "black belt" counties.

The rapid increase of the appropriations for white schools during the past few years, and especially the multiplication of white high schools in the Southern States, have given rise to the belief that the appropriations for Negro schools have actually decreased. While this is probably true in some counties, the school records show an increase in the State appropriations for both the white and colored schools.

According to report of the State superintendent, the expenditures for white schools in Alabama increased tenfold between 1880 and 1910, while those for the Negro schools doubled. Similar expenditures in North Carolina increased eightfold for the white schools and threefold for the Negro schools. It is noteworthy that practically all of these increases have taken place since 1900. In most of these improvements the city schools have been favored to the neglect of the rural schools, both for white and colored pupils. The following quotation from the report of the North Carolina State superintendent of public instruction is significant:

It will be observed that considerably more was spent on rural Negro schools in 1895 than in 1905. Suppose our white schools showed the same results for the past twenty years, would we not be necessarily alarmed at that evidence of lack of progress?

FINANCIAL RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

Proper appreciation of the comparatively low per capita expenditures for education in the South and especially of the divergence between the figures for white and colored requires an understanding of the financial status of that section. The chief difficulty confronting southern school officials interested in school improvement is the lack of adequate revenue. The unsatisfactory financial condition is the result of the necessity of maintaining a double system of schools on the comparatively limited revenues of a section that has only recently recovered from the heavy burdens of the Civil War. This condition is further complicated by antiquated systems of taxation, a loosely organized administrative system, and the difficulty of inducing local school units to supplement the State funds by local taxation.

The State school systems of the South are recent developments. Although germs of these systems were to be found before 1860, the modern idea of the public school for all children was not fully adopted by the southern people until the decade 1870-1880. The public school was at first regarded as a charity institution. This conception was due in part to the use of public funds to pay the tuition of needy pupils and in part to the custom of inducing private individuals to maintain "subscribed scholars" at the school. Among the early attempts to found public schools in the South are to be noted the act of the Georgia Legislature of 1783 authorizing the governor to grant 1,000 acres of land to a "free school" in each county in the State; Thomas Jefferson's proposed plan of State education for Virginia; the act of the Alabama territorial legislature of 1819,

authorizing county agents to contract for the employment of teachers and the erection of school houses, and the development of public-school systems in cities like Charleston, S. C., Augusta, Savannah, Brunswick, and Washington, Ga., and Mobile, Ala. Shortly before the Civil War, Alabama, North Carolina, and Georgia passed laws providing for State-wide systems of public schools with State aid. Except in North Carolina, these systems had hardly begun to operate when the war compelled the abandonment of the effort. The reconstruction governments established free public schools, but these were discredited in the eyes of the southern white people, and it was not until almost 1880 that the public-school idea was accepted as the best solution of the educational problem.

According to the United States Census report on "Wealth, Debt, and Taxation" the estimated wealth of 10 Southern States in 1860 was one-third of the total wealth of the country. During the Civil War these States not only lost 47 per cent of their total wealth, but suffered such an economic upheaval that recovery has required many decades. While the development of the section in the past few years has been remarkable, the per capita wealth did not equal that of 1860 until 1900 in some States and 1904 in others. These facts are shown in the following table based on the United States Census report "Estimated Valuation of National Wealth":

	1912	1904	1900	1870 ¹	1860
United States.....	\$1,836	\$1,234	\$1,083	\$624	\$514
Middle Atlantic.....	2,052	1,631	1,474	1,021	500
South Atlantic.....	1,094	654	576	307	537
East South Central.....	854	536	464	275	563
West South Central.....	1,581	718	605	352	679

According to this table the wealth of the three southern sections decreased from 1860 to 1870, while the Middle Atlantic States made a marked increase in the same period. Only the South Atlantic division had recovered the 1860 per capita by 1900. The west South Central was restored to its original rank in 1904 and the east South Central about 1906. Not one of the sections has yet attained the rank of the northern divisions.

The Southern States are largely dependent, for public revenue, upon taxes levied upon the real and personal property of corporations and individuals. In Georgia over 80 per cent of the revenue is derived from property tax, and in Virginia and North Carolina considerably over 50 per cent is derived from such a tax. The well-known disadvantages of such a form of taxation, dependent as it is upon the returns of the property owner, render the revenues smaller and more subject to fluctuation than those derived from the more modern forms of taxation and permanent school funds. In 1914 the General Assembly of Virginia became so dissatisfied with the tax system that a committee of investigation made a thoroughgoing study of the existing property tax. It was found that the assessed value of real estate ranged from 12 to 20 per cent of the true value in some counties and from 65 to 75 per cent in cities. The investigation showed that the system was utterly inadequate for taxing intangible property and for reaching the capital of corporations. Such defects in the property tax led Dr. Wicliffe Rose, in his study, "The School Revenues of Ten Southern States," to the conclusion that no satisfactory increase could be realized in school funds until the general problem of raising the whole public revenue was more satisfactorily solved.

¹ Gold basis.

Dependence upon a property tax for the support of schools has led some people to make inquiries in regard to the relation of the funds appropriated to Negro schools to the taxes paid on property owned by Negroes. Some of the conclusions drawn from these inquiries are, however, open to several objections. A fundamental objection arises from the implication that the revenues for education should be apportioned according to the taxes paid. Such a practice would not meet the needs of a democracy. If only the large taxpayers were entitled to excellent schools, the public education of the poorer classes would be very meager indeed. A second objection arises from the difficulty of determining just how much tax the Negro does pay. This involves the difficult problem of assigning to each race the amount of taxes paid by corporations, fines, and excises, and the further problem of determining who pays the taxes on rental property, whether it is the landlord who actually turns the money over to the tax collector or the tenant who pays the money to the landlord as part of the rental. In this connection the following quotation from the report (1906-8) of the North Carolina State superintendent of instruction is highly significant:

This report shows that the Negroes paid for schools in taxes on their own property and polls, about \$147,949, or nearly one-half of all that they received for school purposes. Add to this their just share of fines, forfeitures, and penalties, most of which they really pay, and their share of the large school tax paid by corporations to which they are entitled under the constitution by every dictate of reason and justice, and it will be apparent that if any part of the taxes actually paid by individual white men ever reaches the Negro for school purposes, the amount is so small that the man that would begrudge it or complain about it ought to be ashamed of himself. In the face of these facts any unprejudiced man must see that we are in no danger of giving the Negroes more than they are entitled to by every dictate of justice, right, wisdom, humanity, and Christianity.

It may be said in this connection that Negro-owned property is increasing in amount and value and a very large proportion of the money appropriated to Negro schools is paid in by Negroes in taxes.¹ Only in the States of Georgia, North Carolina, and Virginia is the property owned by Negroes shown separately on the tax books. These States show substantial progress in the amount of property owned by the race. The following table indicates the progress in Georgia from 1880 to 1912 according to the reports of the comptroller general:

	1912	1900	1890	1880
Value of taxable property . . .	\$704, 337, 228	\$388, 154, 413	\$377, 366, 784	\$238, 934, 126
Of white owners	669, 637, 781	374, 035, 693	365, 044, 781	233, 169, 833
Of colored owners	34, 699, 447	14, 118, 720	12, 322, 003	5, 764, 293

During the 32 years covered by this table the value of Negro-owned property in Georgia increased over 500 per cent. During the 12 years from 1900 to 1912 the value of property owned by Negroes increased over \$20,000,000, or 145 per cent. Such substantial progress indicates that the colored people are increasingly able to contribute their share to public revenues.

COLORED PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The limited financial resources, already described, indicate clearly that the public-school facilities for colored children must necessarily be entirely inadequate. There is probably no better authority on the condition of public schools for colored people than

¹ Public Taxation and Negro Schools, C. L. Coon. 12th Conference for Education in the South, 1909.

W. T. B. Williams, field agent of the Slater Fund. In a statement concerning the public schools in 1912 Mr. Williams declared:

While the counties of Virginia and North Carolina furnish desks and blackboards, such apparatus as maps and globes must be supplied by the teachers themselves. In comparatively few cases did I see any efforts toward making the grounds and exterior of the buildings attractive, or toward using the grounds for such practical ends as school gardening. In fact the approaches to most of these schools varied from untidy to positively filthy. Ash heaps often adorned the front yards, and torn bits of paper feathered the ground, while at barely respectful distances leaned ugly outhouses in unscreened and shameful impudence. Their interiors were too often unspeakable. Within the schools themselves there was little that was inviting—almost nothing to suggest that this was a place to live in.

In the States of the lower South the physical equipment of colored schools is far below what it is in Virginia and North Carolina. In many cases in Georgia and Alabama, for instance, schoolhouses are not provided by the public. Only the teacher's salary comes from that source. In South Carolina there are 2,354 public schools for colored people, but there are only 1,442 public colored schoolhouses. The county boards of Georgia own only 208 colored schoolhouses, worth on an average \$166 each; while there are 1,544 other schoolhouses used which do not belong to the county board and which are worth on an average only \$106 each. Alabama reports for colored people only 975 schoolhouses owned by the State, local communities, and towns and cities, and 694 colored public schools taught in buildings other than schoolhouses.

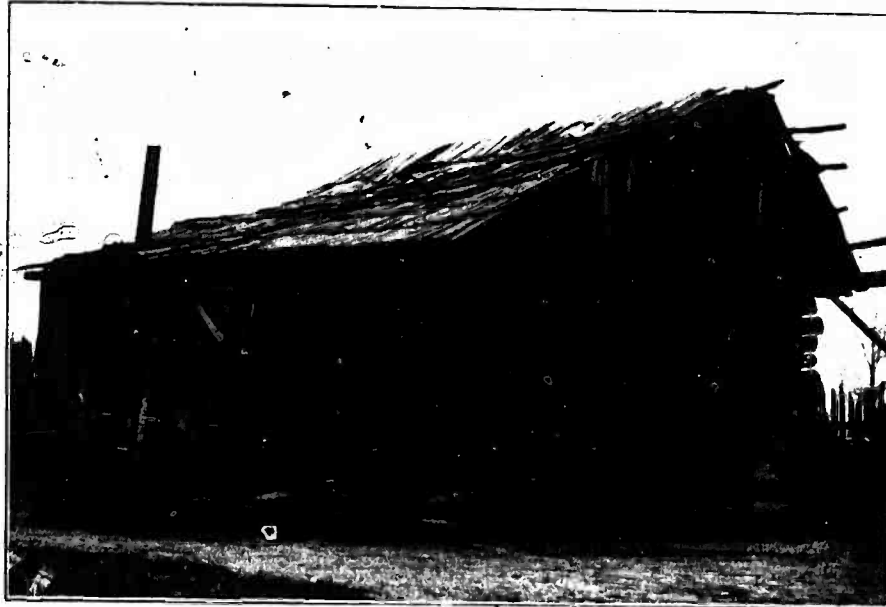
Many of the conditions already mentioned as characteristic of colored schools in general apply to city schools. They are, however, better housed than the country schools, though very frequently they are badly overcrowded; they have longer terms, better courses of study, and sometimes they are better supervised. It is painfully disappointing, though, to see how inadequate and poor many of the colored school buildings are in a number of the more progressive southern cities. Louisville, Nashville, Chattanooga, and especially Little Rock are notable exceptions in this respect, to say nothing of Washington, Indianapolis, and St. Louis. In fact Little Rock in its provisions for colored schools seems not to be surpassed by any southern city of its size or larger east of the Mississippi River.

What was true of Augusta, in 1904, as reported by her superintendent of schools is still too frequently true of conditions in southern cities: "Altogether we can accommodate not more than 2,100 pupils in our Negro schools, out of the 6,500 in the school population. This seating capacity is possible only by having two sessions a day in the lower grades, giving the teacher as many as 100 pupils to teach in two sessions, one half in the morning and the other half in the afternoon. It is true that there are several private schools in the city capable of seating a large number of pupils, but these are not free schools nor do they altogether relieve us of the obligation of providing sufficient school facilities for those who ought to attend school."

ATTENDANCE.

It is to be expected that a school system will at least enroll a majority of the children between the ages of 6 and 14 in the elementary schools. For this reason the United States Census enumeration of children in this age-group is taken as a uniform measure of the quantity of work which the elementary schools do. The attendance of colored children 6 to 14 years of age in the 16 Southern States and the District of Columbia and Missouri was 1,175,457, or 58.1 per cent of the total Negro population between 6 and 14 years of age. This percentage varies from 37.4 in Louisiana to 76.5 in Oklahoma.

Since an efficient school system not only enrolls the pupils but also holds them in school with some degree of regularity until they have finished the elementary grades, it is evident that the low attendance in colored schools is the first great problem to be solved. The improvement of attendance requires not only a better school plant, trained teachers, and more effective work, but also a stronger interest in the school among the masses of the colored people that they may place more emphasis on regularity and punctuality in attendance.



A. A RENTER'S HOME.

The problem of the School Land Company. Calhoun School, Calhoun, Ala.

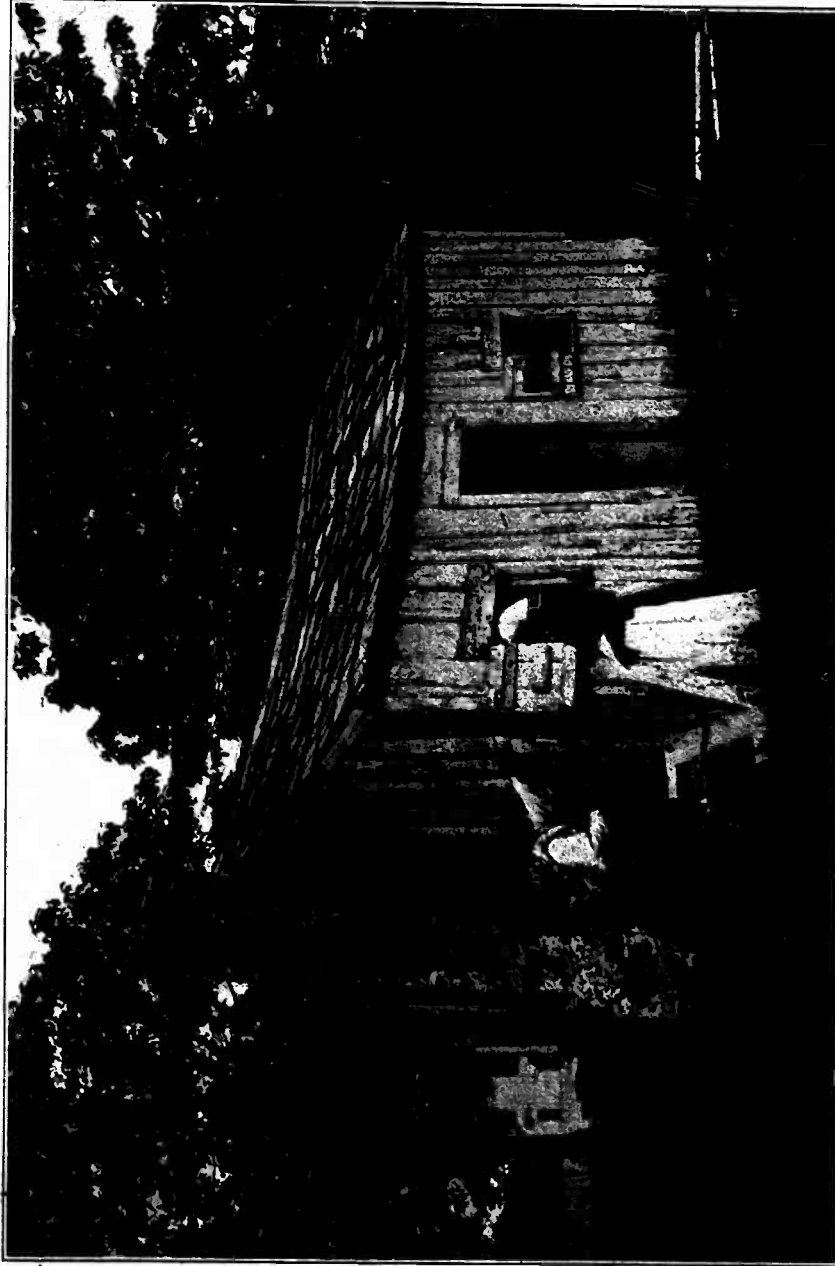


B. AN OWNER'S HOME.

A result of the School Land Company.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 5.



NEIGHBORHOOD SERVICE BY A STUDENT.

The multiplication of small one-room schools which has led to the movement for consolidation in the case of white children has not extended to the colored public schools. Colored schools have never multiplied fast enough to be too close together, and it is not uncommon to find pupils who walk 6 or 7 miles to attend school.

BUILDINGS.

Many communities do not own school buildings for the colored children. In such cases school is held in some makeshift building loaned to the district. Rural churches, lodge halls, and sometimes deserted cabins are pressed into service for school purposes. While statistics on ownership of colored schools are not available in all States, Alabama and Georgia will serve as illustrations. In Alabama over 64 per cent of colored schools are taught in buildings not owned by the public authorities; in Georgia such school-houses form over 63 per cent of the total. The public school authorities in these States likewise own only three-fourths of the buildings in which white schools are taught. In Kentucky, on the other hand, only 10 per cent of the colored schools and a still smaller percentage of white schools are taught in privately owned buildings. So long as the school is housed in such a temporary manner, it is exceedingly difficult to arouse the interest of teachers, pupils, or patrons sufficiently to improve the plant or to add to the value of the property.

A careful survey of three typical counties in Alabama, made by State supervisors of schools, disclosed the fact that whereas the seating capacity of the 80 colored schools was 3,794, their enrollment was 6,391 and attendance 5,832. In other words, these schools were called on to accommodate, at the time of the survey, 2,038 more pupils than their normal capacity. The report concludes: "One can very well appreciate the reply which the colored teacher makes to the question as to why there are not more children in school or the attendance greater, when she says: 'I haven't room for them.'"

OVERAGE PUPILS.

There is no doubt that the colored people can do much to improve school attendance even though the schools are poor and unattractive. Part of the irregularity is due to the low economic status of the community. Farm laborers and tenant farmers are often a shifting economic group, migrating in response to the demands for labor in different localities. The resulting lack of permanency of interest renders the problem of school attendance very discouraging. Another result of the farming conditions is the low attendance of pupils in the months when cotton is hoed and picked. In April and May and later in September and October and part of November, it is exceedingly difficult to prevail upon the children to attend school. This leaves but three and a half to one and a half months in which the schools are used to full capacity. Irregular attendance, together with the abnormally short term of rural colored schools, makes the number of overage pupils in these schools very large.

According to the United States Census for 1910 there were 315,000 Negroes 15 to 20 years of age attending schools in Southern States. The statistics of secondary schools indicate that only about 25,000 of these were above elementary grade. It therefore follows that fully 290,000, or approximately 90 per cent of these Negro pupils, were overage

pupils in elementary grades. The presence of this large overage group in the schools hampers the organization of the classes and adds to the causes of elimination of pupils from the upper grades. It is obvious that if, under normal conditions, children can finish the elementary course at 14, the majority will not remain in the grades until they are 17 or 18.

TEACHERS.

The teachers of colored public schools occupy a peculiarly important position. They are not only the chief agents in stimulating the interest of the colored people in the public schools, but they are also in a position to present the needs of the colored schools effectively to the school officials. Their work, well done, will not only produce better trained men and women but will also develop friendly and helpful relations between the white and colored people of the South. Such a responsibility should be placed only on well-trained teachers. Observation, however, shows that the large majority of the teachers now in the schools are utterly incapable of any responsibility. The chapter on "Teacher-training" in this report makes plain the fact that the public provision for training colored teachers is negligible. Even the private schools supply only a small proportion of the number needed.

The question of teachers' salaries, for both races, has received considerable attention, and some improvement in the salaries of white teachers has been made. The wage scale of colored teachers is still very low, however. The following table gives the annual salaries in States for which figures could be obtained:¹

	White teachers.	Negro teachers.	Annual salaries, white.	Annual salaries, Negro.	Average annual salary, white.	Average annual salary, Negro.
Alabama.....	7,0988	2,344	\$2,523,550	\$372,177	\$355.53	\$158.78
Florida.....	3,353	992	1,022,745	167,381	305.02	168.70
Georgia.....	9,053	4,052	2,884,580	483,622	318.63	119.35
Kentucky.....	10,593	1,294	3,389,354	401,208	322.70	310.05
Louisiana.....	5,306	1,328	2,807,103	211,376	529.04	159.89
North Carolina.....	8,716	2,875	1,715,994	340,856	196.83	118.59
South Carolina.....	4,363	2,760	1,454,098	305,084	333.28	110.54
Virginia.....	8,576	2,441	2,707,365	421,381	322.69	172.63

The inadequate compensation is ample explanation of the poor teaching found in most of the rural public schools for colored people. It is little wonder that 70 per cent of the teachers in the "black belt" States have less than six grades of elementary education. "The chief exceptions to this class of teachers," writes Mr. Williams, of the Slater Fund, "are those from a number of the private schools that teach their students to put service to their communities above consideration of self. The splendidly unselfish and effective work of so many of these young people is at once the glory and occasion of the institutions from which they come."

SCHOOL TERM.

Much confusion and inefficiency in the colored public schools is due to the short terms of these schools. In practically all the Southern States the average term is less than six months.² In Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina it is

¹ The figures are for 1911-12 and 1912-13.

² Statistics for Delaware, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, and West Virginia could not be obtained.

less than five months; in Georgia, Arkansas, and Tennessee it is between five and six months; and in Oklahoma, Kentucky, Texas, and Virginia it is slightly over six months. If the statistics for rural-school terms could be obtained separately they would show the term of rural schools in these States still shorter.

Signs of gradual improvement in the length of the school term are to be found in the reports of the State superintendents of schools. The Jeanes Fund teachers and the colored people interested in school work are instrumental in encouraging the patrons of many schools to contribute sums to supplement the public-school money and extend the school term for a month or two. It is impossible to say how much the colored people pay from their own purses in this way for extension of school term and general betterment of schools. An index to the amount is found in the reports of the Jeanes Fund supervisors, who reported that in 1915 they raised about \$75,000 in 131 counties.

INSTRUCTION.

The States which prescribe courses of study for the elementary schools have made little progress in the adaptation of their work to pupils of varying conditions. Still less progress has been made where the elementary instruction is left to the local officers or trustees. As an instance, the teaching of agriculture may be cited. In most cases the State courses of study place this subject in the last elementary grade. In the Southern States practically all the elementary schools make the seventh grade their highest class. As a large majority of the pupils in the rural schools never reach the seventh grade, it is obvious that nature study and the practice of gardening should be placed much lower if it is to influence the majority of the pupils. This is especially true of the colored pupils, the large majority of whom never reach even the sixth grade. Manual training of the simple type introduced by the Jeanes Fund supervising industrial teachers should have a wider application in the rural schools. A practical teacher is all that is needed to introduce shuck mat work, simple sewing, patching and quilting for girls, repair of buildings and woodworking for boys. The value of these activities to a community, especially when the pupils are encouraged to practice them in their homes, is especially valuable in encouraging neatness and pride in home life.

Too much emphasis can not be placed upon teaching hygiene in a practical way in the rural schools. Formal physiology, like agriculture, is usually placed late in the elementary course. The high death rate of the colored people, especially of those between 10 and 20 years, emphasizes the great need of thorough instruction in hygiene. The first requisite is, of course, the example of a clean, well-ventilated schoolhouse and neat, orderly grounds. While many of the rural schoolhouses are in bad repair, there are many that could be greatly improved by frequent application of broom, soap, and water. An insanitary, unscreened toilet could easily be made respectable by the pupils themselves under the directions of an enterprising teacher, and the performance of the task would be a most valuable lesson both to the pupil and to the community.

With the selection of good teachers and with careful supervision, striking results might be obtained in the teaching of English, geography, and history, as well as the introduction of such subjects as gardening, industrial work, and hygiene. These are the adaptations that are being introduced in the school work for white pupils. Surely the Negro schools are equally in need of similar adaptations.

SUPERVISION.

With the increasing separation of the races the value of careful supervision of colored schools can not be overestimated. In a large number of counties in the South, however, the county superintendent is not a supervising officer in any real sense. His salary is small, his duties chiefly administrative. Under such circumstances the county superintendent is often compelled to spend part of his time in some profession or business to supplement his income. Even in the counties of the South where the superintendent is paid the full salary of a supervising officer the colored schools are too often neglected. This is frequently due to lack of interest in colored schools.

Since the county superintendents are largely dependent upon the State departments for direction, they can not be expected to become efficient supervising officers until the State supervising agencies develop closer cooperation with them. The plan of cooperation between the General Education Board and the State departments of education provides one means of stimulating the interest of county or city superintendents in their schools. This plan provides financial aid from the General Education Board for the appointment of an officer by the State superintendent, who gives all his time to the supervision of colored schools. In this way the county superintendents have the benefit of the counsel of a man who is thoroughly familiar with local conditions as well as with the needs of the colored people. Ten States now have these supervisors, and the results of their work are most valuable.

In addition to these white State officers, 163 counties in the Southern States had colored supervisors of industrial work in the colored schools in 1916. These county supervisors are maintained cooperatively by the Jeanes Fund and the counties. They assist the county superintendents in the direction and encouragement of colored schools. The value of this supervision is well described by Jackson Davis of Virginia:

The general plan, so successful in its early demonstration, has continued to grow and meet with approval. It has developed initiative among the colored rural people; and it has tied their interests together in the school for a better neighborhood. The moral effect has been noticed by the white people around them, and their support of this movement has been hearty. I asked a school trustee, in a county where this work and farm-demonstration work had been going on for several years, if he could notice any change taking place among the colored people of the county. He replied that a decided movement was going on, that they were working more industriously, and taking more interest in their homes, their farms, and their schools. They were so much interested in better schools that they contributed from one-fourth to one-half the cost of new colored schoolhouses that had been built. He added that crime was decreasing and bank deposits increasing.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

While the primary educational need of colored people is the improvement of public elementary schools, sound educational policy also requires the development of public secondary schools. The great development which the white high schools have undergone in the last decade has hardly touched the colored high schools. In some communities, the interest in education stimulated by this development has resulted in the improvement of elementary schools for colored people. The appointment of white supervisors of secondary schools in all the Southern States and the concerted movement to standardize college entrance requirements have forced a remarkable increase and improvement in white high schools. According to the report of the General Education

Board for 1902-1914, the four-year high schools for white pupils established in the period covered by the report numbered 174 in Virginia, 110 in North Carolina, 78 in Georgia, 88 in Alabama, 37 in Tennessee, 18 in South Carolina, 13 in Florida, 31 in Mississippi, 62 in Arkansas, and 15 in West Virginia. The three-year high schools reported totaled 132 in Georgia, 100 in North Carolina, 60 in Arkansas, 146 in Virginia, 12 in West Virginia, 37 in Tennessee, 88 in South Carolina, 23 in Alabama, and 14 in Florida.

Nothing approximating this development has taken place in colored high schools. Until the recent appointment of State supervisors of colored schools there have been no forces to encourage the organization of colored high schools. It is well known that the supply of trained teachers for elementary schools depends almost entirely on the high schools. Much of the money now spent on elementary education is wasted for the lack of trained teachers. A well-organized system of public high schools not only improves the grade of teachers but also makes possible a more effective type of education in the elementary grades. The chapters on secondary, rural, and industrial education in this report discuss at length the contribution of various phases of secondary education to the economic and moral welfare of the community.

Important as high schools are for both white and colored pupils only a small number of Southern cities and towns have developed public high schools for colored people. The 64 schools described in the second volume constitute practically all of the secondary schools in the public-school systems. There are probably 200 other schools which enroll a few pupils in secondary subjects. Although the income of almost all these high schools is very limited, some provision is made for industrial courses. The best examples of public high schools for colored people are those of St. Louis, Mo.; Washington, D. C.; Kansas City, Mo.; Little Rock, Ark.; Fort Worth, San Antonio, Houston, and Dallas, Tex., and Louisville, Ky. In Columbus, Ga., and Charleston, S. C., the public authorities maintain industrial schools that are especially effective. While their work is of elementary grade, provision for advanced work is being introduced as the need arises.

Practically no progress has been made in the development of agricultural or teacher-training high schools for colored pupils. Only the cities of Baltimore, Louisville, and Washington provide teacher-training high schools as part of their public-school systems. St. Louis, Little Rock, and Richmond provide some teacher-training in special high-school courses.

COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The organization of county training schools is a very effective movement both for secondary education and teacher training. These institutions, at present 44 in number, are supported cooperatively by the Slater Fund, the public authorities, and the General Education Board. The plan is to develop a central school in the county where pupils may supplement the training received in the rural schools and be prepared for teaching. As yet, however, these schools are, with a few exceptions, entirely elementary. Aside from their value as teacher-training centers, these schools when properly developed can be of great service to the county in giving the pupils simple secondary courses together with industrial and agricultural work. They provide a stimulus to the

elementary schools and are becoming centers of training for rural life. The organization and spirit of these institutions are indicated by the following circular letter which Dr. James H. Dillard, of the Slater Fund, recently wrote to the principals:

All of us who have at heart the education of the colored people in the South take great interest in the success of the training schools which are being established in various counties. Personally, I believe that the establishment of such schools is the next forward step that must be taken, and the Slater Fund has determined to use a considerable portion of its revenues in promoting the establishment of such schools. Three were established in 1912, four in 1913, eight in 1914, seventeen in 1915, twenty-seven in 1916, and during the present session there will probably be forty-three. You are aware of the conditions on which the Slater fund makes the annual appropriation of \$500, and I am sure you appreciate the importance of all these conditions. By making the school a part of the public-school system there is a security of support, so that the principal will not be compelled, as in the case of private schools, to spend a large part of his time soliciting support. It is the county's business to fulfill its part of the agreement in making an appropriation of at least \$750 for maintenance. These schools, therefore, should have \$1,250 a year for maintenance, and doubtless most of them will have more than this.

Because of the present importance of these schools, I am writing you this letter to urge that you do your part in fulfilling the third condition, which depends very largely upon you. In fact, I am inclined to think that the real success will depend upon the ability and character of the principal. Where the third condition says "that the teaching shall be carried strictly and honestly through at least the eighth grade," it means that you are to see to it that the work is thorough and honest, without any sham or pretense. Ultimately all these schools should embrace at least a tenth grade, but let me tell you that many a person might be better educated by going through eight grades, when the teaching is honest and thorough, than by going through many so-called colleges where the teaching is shallow and pretentious.

Because of our anxiety to make these schools a success, I am writing to let you know that we all realize how much this success depends upon you, and to express the hope that you will earnestly and faithfully do your part in holding the work up to the standard of honesty and thoroughness.

The testimony of the county superintendents of counties in which the training schools are located is universally favorable. The following comments from their reports illustrate their attitude:

Washington County Training School, Sandersville, Ga.—The school influences the work of the colored schools throughout the county. Principal Elder is doing a great work in his school and he has the hearty sympathy of the white people. This was shown when the county board appropriated \$300. The city school board appropriated the same amount when the new arts building was erected.

Queensland Normal and Industrial Training School, Fitzgerald, Ben Hill County, Ga.—We are more than hopeful as to the influence of this school and think our white people are looking on it with more favor than formerly. We are crowded now for room for pupils and shall have to make some additions in the fall. The dormitory is now full of boarders and we trust to use it for our Teachers Summer School. I have the assurance of a much larger school for this than last summer.

Dundar Training School, Brownsville, Haywood County, Tenn.—Deep interest is being taken in the industrial work, on the part of teachers, parents, and children. Recently a County Teachers' Association for the county has organized with 30 members, for the purpose of doing industrial work. Thus it will be seen that the interest in this work is taking hold in a way that means much to the Negroes of the county. We feel much encouraged over the future outlook for industrial training among our Negro teachers.

Caroline County Training School, Bowling Green, Va.—The one-room school will never educate the country Negro, because he sees no future and stops school before completing the seventh grade. Our training school, I verily believe, is the solution of the education of the country Negro. Since the establishing of the Caroline County Training School there is the most wonderful change in the Negro's attitude toward the educational system.

III. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The development of public secondary schools for colored people is essential to the school system of the South. The low grade of work in the elementary schools for Negroes is largely due to the inadequate supply of trained teachers. Only a system of public high schools can supply this demand. Furthermore, the public high schools are greatly needed to train agricultural, industrial, and religious leaders of the masses and to fit pupils for the medical and other professional schools required for safeguarding the health and morals of 10,000,000 people. At present this responsibility rests largely on the private secondary schools, the majority of which have planned their courses to suit the needs of the few who may go to college rather than the necessities of the many who never go beyond the high school.

The multiplication of public secondary schools for white pupils in the South is one of the remarkable educational achievements of the past 15 years. The secondary education of colored people, however, has had practically no part in this progress. Only the border States seem to have made an effort to provide high schools for Negroes. In the other States the public secondary facilities are almost negligible and the field is largely left to the private schools.

PURPOSE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

In order to understand the place of secondary schools in the plan of education, it is necessary to outline the general purpose of secondary education in the American school system. It is safe to say that the possibilities of this phase of education have been greatly underestimated because the main purpose of the traditional high school course has been preparation for college rather than preparation for life. The subject matter of these schools has been largely the conventional knowledge desired by those who had more leisure than responsibility. Subjects have been retained in the course for their alleged "disciplinary" or decorative value rather than for their actual and practical values.

With the increasing demand for democracy in education, the high schools are now recognizing the importance of providing instruction adapted to the needs of the pupils and the community. They are also realizing that modern sciences have made discoveries and achieved results that challenge the right of the ancient classics to a prominent place in the education of the youth. This challenge is effectively expressed in the following statement by Dr. Edward O. Sisson, State commissioner of education for Idaho:

The old rigid curriculum of the secondary school used to begin with Latin, four years, Greek, two or three years, mathematics, two or three years. Although this was a comparatively short time ago, we have traveled far in the meantime; now the most widely accepted prescription is the nine units of the National Education Association—English 3, foreign language 2, mathematics 2, history and social science 1, and natural science 1.

It is well known that Latin and Greek were originally frankly instrumental and merely preliminary to "study," for the simple reason that they constituted the only gate to the study of any branch whatsoever. Later, when science and literature deigned to clothe themselves in the vernacular tongues, various new values were found or asserted for the languages. With these, however, we have nothing to do here. The new schedule of prescription is still dominantly instrumental: English, with the stress upon composition; foreign languages, and mathematics. The distinctly content element gets only two units out of the nine. The question is, is it more important for all students to have two units of foreign language, two of mathematics, and three of English, than to have more than one year of natural science, or more than one year of history and the social sciences?

The natural sciences are the great mental achievement of our own race and our own age of the world. They reveal the constitution and laws of the material universe out of which man springs and by which all his life and action are conditioned. The social sciences, with history, are older even than natural science, and yet to-day are springing into a new and momentous importance. They reveal the forms and movements of man's own life. Together these two fields compass the preponderating part of all positive knowledge, aside from the practical arts. Without some grasp of their most salient facts and basic principles no man can hope to understand his world or his place in it. Yet only two out of nine prescribed units are assigned to these two fields together. And unfortunately, great numbers of students never get beyond these two prescribed units, and so go out of school untrained in all except one small corner of each of these fields. * * *

It is not necessary to belittle the importance and value of the other prescribed subjects; the plea may well be based upon the incomparable importance of these two fields for all thinking persons. Nor is the question whether some, or even all, students should or should not take three units of English. The vital questions are such as these: Is it not far more important for the great majority of secondary students to have at least two years of natural science than two years of foreign language? Is it not absolutely wrong to cut off any secondary student with one meager year for history and the social sciences? * * * Let us have a prescription of genuine fundamentals—natural science, mathematics, English, social sciences; if any are to be given the preference in quantity, let it be to the great content studies, the natural and social sciences.

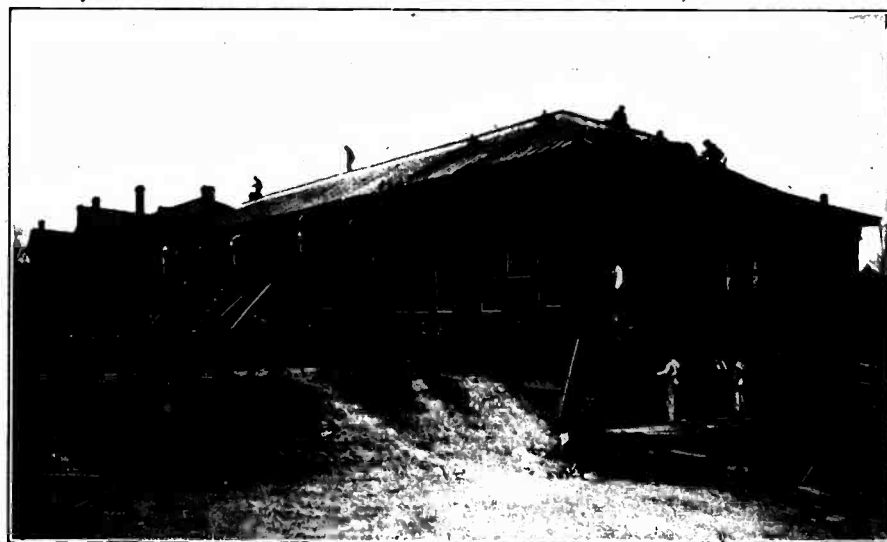
Another significant pronouncement concerning secondary education is found in a recent statement by President Eliot. President Eliot declares:¹

The changes which ought to be made immediately in the programs of American secondary schools, in order to correct the glaring deficiencies of the present programs, are chiefly: The introduction of more hand, ear, and eye work, such as drawing, carpentry, turning, music, sewing, and cooking, and the giving of much more time to the sciences of observation—chemistry, physics, biology, and geography—not political, but geological and ethnographical geography. These sciences should be taught in the most concrete manner possible—that is, in laboratories with ample experimenting done by the individual pupil with his own eyes and hands, and in the field through the pupil's own observation guided by expert leaders. In secondary schools situated in the country, the elements of agriculture should have an important place in the program, and the pupils should all work in the school gardens and experimental plats, both individually and in cooperation with others. In city schools, a manual training should be given which would prepare a boy for any one of many different trades, not by familiarizing him with the details of actual work in any trade but by giving him an all-round bodily vigor, a nervous system capable of multiform coordinated efforts, a liking for doing his best in competition with mates, and a widely applicable skill of eye and hand. Again, music should be given a substantial place in the program of every secondary school, in order that all the pupils may learn musical notation and may get much practice in reading music and in singing. Drawing, both free-hand and mechanical, should be given ample time in every secondary-school program, because it is an admirable mode of expression which supplements language and is often to be preferred to it, lies at the foundation of excellence in many arts and trades, affords simultaneously good training for both eye and hand, and gives much enjoyment throughout life to the possessor of even a moderate amount of skill.

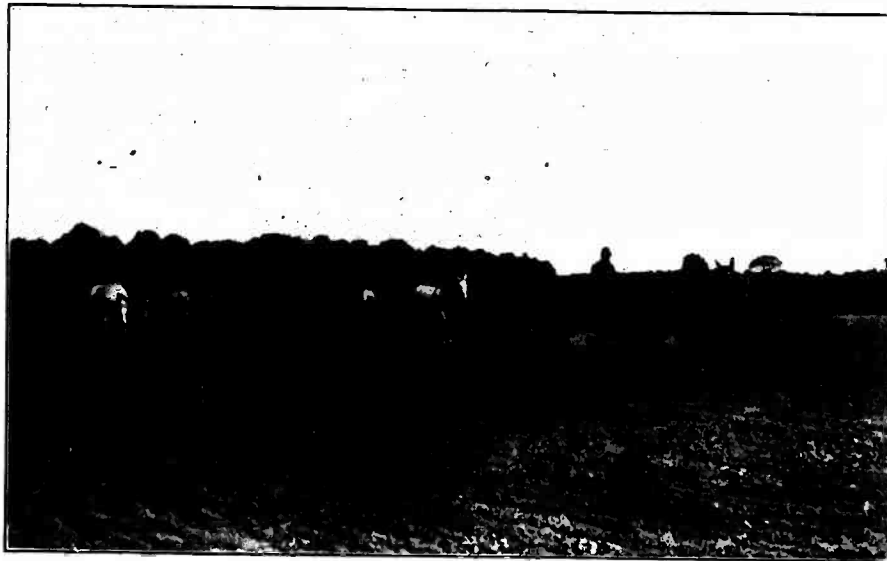
¹ "Changes needed in American Secondary Education." Publications of the General Education Board, Occasional Papers No. 2. See also Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, 1916, No. 10.



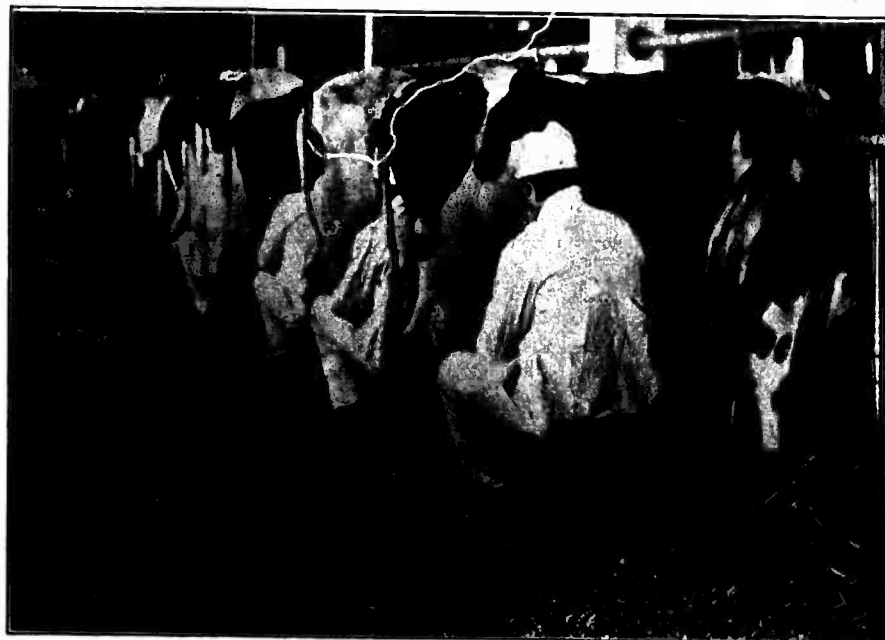
A. TRUCK GARDENING AT THE SCHOOL.



B. STUDENTS AT WORK ON A NEW BUILDING.



A. FARMING AT HAMPTON INSTITUTE.



B. THE SCHOOL DAIRY.

Public opinion is rapidly realizing the necessity for immediate reorganization of secondary education in accordance with these principles. Probably the most definite movement in this direction is represented by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, appointed in 1910. The commission recognizes that reorganization must be consistent with the results of the modern science of educational psychology, which requires all instruction to be related to the experience and aptitudes of the pupil; that the objectives of secondary education shall be determined by the general needs of the community and not by college entrance requirements; and, finally, that the first period in the high school shall provide an opportunity for the pupil to find his aptitudes and the second period shall enable him to acquire a more intimate knowledge of the special fields in which he is interested. In a preliminary statement, the commission has indicated the main objectives of public education to be health, home making, vocation, civic knowledge and spirit, wise use of leisure, and ethical conduct. While this statement of objectives is only tentative, it shows that the commission intends to insist upon the adaptation of secondary education to the real issues of life.

SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR NEGROES.

The objectives of secondary education, as they have been outlined in the preceding section, are being gradually realized in the schools for white children. A study of secondary facilities for colored children shows that they are not only exceedingly meager, but that many schools are neither adapted to the needs of their pupils nor planned to prepare teachers.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS AND NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PUPILS.

States.	Number of schools.			Attendance.			High-school teachers.			Value of property.
	Total.	Having four-year course.	Less than four years.	Total.	Secondary.	Elementary.	Total.	Male.	Female.	
Total.....	¹ 67	45	19	29,630	8,707	20,923	484	243	220	\$3,172,250
Alabama.....	4	2	2	1,852	541	1,311	19	6	13	21,500
Arkansas.....	5	3	2	1,828	253	1,575	22	11	11	105,000
Delaware.....	1	1	485	60	425	11	3	8	33,800
District of Columbia.....	3	2	1,375	1,375	96	48	48	985,000
Florida.....	2	1	1	1,468	78	1,390	6	3	3	190,000
Georgia.....	1	1	321	40	281	5	2	3	15,000
Kentucky.....	10	8	1	31,469	779	2,690	44	23	21	209,000
Maryland.....	2	1	781	781	42	17	25	80,000
Mississippi.....	1	1	699	49	650	3	2	1	14,000
Missouri.....	2	2	910	910	49	32	17	430,500
Oklahoma.....	5	5	1,796	368	1,428	27	17	10	166,750
South Carolina.....	1	1	1,465	138	1,327	6	2	4	15,300
Texas.....	13	10	3	6,300	1,212	5,088	63	33	30	370,300
Tennessee.....	5	1	4	1,947	650	1,297	25	15	10	117,000
Virginia.....	6	3	3	3,615	1,070	2,545	38	11	27	163,500
West Virginia.....	5	5	1,066	150	916	16	10	6	265,600
Kansas.....	1	1	253	253	12	8	4	70,000

¹ Includes three normal schools which offer two-year courses above high-school grade, at Baltimore, Md.; Louisville, Ky., and Washington, D. C.

There are only 64 public high schools for Negroes in the Southern States. Of these, 47 maintain four-year courses and 18 have three-year courses. In addition, there are about 200 public schools which enroll a few pupils above the elementary grades. Practically all the four-year high schools are in the large cities of the border States. Over half are in Texas, Kentucky, Tennessee, and West Virginia; 16 are in Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Virginia. South Carolina has only 1; Florida only 2; North Carolina and Louisiana have no public high schools for Negroes. North Carolina, however, provides three well-managed State normal schools offering secondary work. The city high schools of Washington, D. C., and St. Louis, Mo., are unusual in extent of plant, ranging in value from \$200,000 to \$450,000. Charleston, S. C., and Columbus, Ga., provide effective industrial schools with some secondary work and teacher training. There are also 28 State and Federal institutions, whose pupils are largely of secondary grade.

Secondary education of Negroes south of the border States is largely dependent on private institutions. Of the 216 private schools maintaining secondary classes, 106 offer four-year courses and 110 have courses varying from a few subjects above the elementary grades to a full three-year high-school course. The total number of colored secondary pupils in Southern States is 24,034. Of these, 11,527 are in private schools, 8,707 in public high schools, and 3,800 in State and Federal institutions. While only a fourth of the secondary pupils in the border States are educated at private expense, almost two-thirds of those in the other Southern States are in private institutions. A comparison of secondary pupils, by race, in the South shows that there are, in proportion to population, 10 times as many white pupils in the public high schools as there are colored pupils. The inclusion of the private school attendance for both races changes the ratio so that the proportion of white secondary pupils is five times that of the colored pupils. A study of the comparative secondary school facilities for the two races emphasizes the need for a substantial increase in public high schools for colored pupils. Not only are facilities very limited, but much of the work done is poor in quality and unsuited to the needs of the pupil. In the desire to maintain secondary courses, many of the schools admit pupils before they are prepared. The short school term and the irregular attendance require the majority of the pupils to extend the elementary school years far beyond the usual period. The result is that the institutions able to offer secondary instruction are tempted to advance the overage pupils before they have even a respectable grasp of the "three R's."

An examination of the secondary courses of the schools described in Volume II shows the large place given to foreign languages and especially to the ancient languages. This emphasis on ancient languages is greatest in the schools owned and managed by the colored denominations. This devotion to the old rigid curriculum, with Latin four years, Greek two or three years, and mathematics two or three years, is not difficult to explain. The majority of the schools were established at a time when the old curriculum was the current practice. This practice has continued somewhat longer in the South than in other sections of the country and the Negroes naturally adopted the educational forms of their white neighbors. The persistence of the colored people in their faith in the languages is mainly due to a lack of contact with the progressive educational movements of the day and to the small school income, which limits the possibility of

electives. So far as the needed changes are in the direction of larger recognition of industrial and agricultural instruction, the opposition of the Negroes is based on a suspicion that the white people are urging a caste education which confines them to industrial pursuits. Because of limited laboratory equipment, very few schools are able to teach the physical sciences effectively. The time for history and physiology is not sufficient, and the introduction of civics and teacher-training subjects has hardly begun. Much of this seeming conservatism of the secondary schools is due to the refusal of a number of colleges to give adequate credit to these newer subjects.

No better idea of the character of the courses offered in a majority of the best organized institutions of the literary type can be obtained than by the following reproduction of a statement describing the curriculum of one of these institutions, with the comments thereon by an inspector of Massachusetts high schools:

Teachers and workers.—Total 19; men 14, women 5; all colored but two who are in the ministerial department; grades 2, academic 11, religion 2, music 1, gardening 1, matron 1, medical adviser 1. They are devoted to the welfare of their pupils and command the confidence of the student body. The result is an enthusiasm and unanimity of spirit that are favorable to good work.

Organisation.—Elementary: The grades are well taught; two periods a week of manual training are provided in each class.

Secondary: The secondary grades are "intended primarily to prepare men for college," and it may be added, for the classical course in college. The course includes: English 3½ years, Latin 4, Greek 2, mathematics 2½, botany and physical geography 1, history 1, civics one-half, physiology one-half, and short courses in music, Bible, and manual training. This preparatory course, with its limited aim, is required of all students. There are no elective courses.

Should be 4 for college
Economics
Sociology
Stronger in history
Agriculture
should be added

This is a very antiquated course. These certainly should be elective

This seems absurd when very few Massachusetts high schools attain such and practically no colleges require it.

With all their limitations, however, the secondary schools, public and private, have been, and still are, the chief agencies for the training of public-school teachers. Although teachers trained in these schools form but a small proportion of the total number needed, they have been a most vital part of the teaching force. While the course of study has been antiquated, the teachers of the private schools have been, as a rule, men and women of high character. The white people who undertook this work were excellent teachers, whose daily example was of far greater value than the instruction from books. Credit must also be given to the industrial facilities maintained by a number of these schools. Some of the industrial schools for colored people may be ranked as among the most progressive institutions of the country in their provision for teaching the physical sciences, physiology and hygiene, civics, and teacher-training subjects.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

SUMMARY.

A summary of the facts outlined in this section on secondary education for colored people points to the following conclusions:

1. That the secondary schools are so few in number and so poorly equipped that they supply but a small fraction of the teachers required by the elementary schools for colored people.
2. That the inadequacy of the elementary school system is such that the number of pupils prepared to study secondary subjects is not sufficient to use the secondary facilities, even of the private schools.
3. That much of the secondary work done in the private schools is not planned to prepare teachers for the elementary schools nor adapted to the needs of the majority of the pupils.
4. That a small number of the institutions for colored pupils have been among the pioneers in putting into effect the progressive ideals and methods that are now reorganizing American secondary education.

MEANS AND METHODS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.

It is certain that the extremely low grade of colored public school teachers will be raised only through the increase and improvement of secondary education. It is equally clear that one of the most practical steps in this direction is the determination to establish close cooperation between the private and public schools. There should be a definite policy, first, to place the responsibility for the elementary schools as rapidly as possible upon the public authorities, and, second, to urge the private schools so far as feasible to center their energy on secondary education with special reference to assisting the State in the training of teachers.

Owing to the inadequate system of public elementary schools, the private institutions are now compelled to devote 80 per cent of their energy to elementary pupils. Such a condition indicates a public policy which fails to cooperate in the realization of the best possibilities of the private schools. It is evidently wasteful to compel the private institutions to devote their resources to elementary education. Certainly private philanthropy can not hope to relieve the public authorities of their responsibility for elementary schools. It is apparent, therefore, that the first requisite for an adequate system of secondary schools, as well as the first step in the improvement of public school teachers, is the increase of public elementary schools.

SECONDARY DEPARTMENT HAMPERED BY ELEMENTARY CLASSES.

The situation confronting the private secondary schools on account of the necessity of maintaining large elementary classes is very perplexing. There is no doubt of the wisdom of the schools in suiting the instruction to the advancement of their pupils, even though this requires elementary classes. It is just as unfortunate to offer secondary instruction to pupils who have not yet completed the elementary grades, as it is to accept students in college classes before they have finished their secondary work. Some of the most serious mistakes of a large number of colored schools are made in the effort to teach secondary subjects to pupils whose knowledge of the "three R's" is

very limited. There is little doubt, however, that private schools should not only be ever ready to turn over their elementary grades to the public schools, but that they should also use every possible means to urge the public authorities to provide for the elementary grades. Investigation shows that a number of institutions are even now hampering their secondary classes by dividing their resources in order to offer instruction to elementary pupils who could be educated either in public schools or in other private schools with fewer facilities for secondary work. In a few instances, this willingness to maintain elementary schools has the effect of retarding public school effort. Hitherto, however, the number of such cases has been negligible.

ADAPTATION TO PUPIL AND COMMUNITY.

Next to the necessity for increased public elementary school facilities is the adaptation of secondary education to the needs of the pupils and the community. Public sentiment favorable to high schools for colored people will not increase so long as these schools insist on a curriculum largely based on the educational tradition of a different period, a different race, and a different average stage of progress. Secondary schools must keep abreast of the times; they must insist that preparation for college is not more important than preparation for life. The sound claim should be that the best kind of preparation for college is in those educational activities which enable a pupil to appreciate the problems of his community, that the great modern sciences have a claim far beyond those of the ancient languages, that preparation for teaching and preparation for all useful service give intellectual drill and culture which the pupil may use in his community at the end of his high school course or offer to the college for entrance credit in case he desires to continue his studies.

SECONDARY DEPARTMENT HAMPERED BY COLLEGE CLASSES.

Another essential element in the improvement of secondary education of Negroes is the realization of its importance by both the public and private school authorities. A number of institutions are at present sacrificing the efficiency of their secondary pupils in a struggle to maintain low-grade college instruction for a few pupils who could have the benefit of better college facilities elsewhere. It is far more important to make secondary education effective than to maintain a struggling college department. The observation applies especially to the private institutions under colored management and to a number of the State agricultural and mechanical schools.

SIMPLE ORGANIZATION OF ACTIVITIES.

In view of the limited income of practically all the secondary schools for colored people, sound policy requires simplicity in the course of instruction. Each school should select the type of work most needed and develop its organization according to its income and equipment. Quality should not be sacrificed in order to offer an extended course or a variety of subjects. It is far better to give one year of thorough instruction in a few well-selected subjects than a smattering of knowledge in many. Though these principles are self-evident, many schools are violating them to the injury of their pupils. The main defect of the literary schools is usually the effort to include too many foreign languages; that of the industrial schools is the acquisition of too much industrial equipment and the development of a multiplicity of trades out of all proportions to attendance.

TEACHING METHODS.

It is well known that secondary and college teachers everywhere have a tendency to emphasize the subject matter of their courses to the neglect of methods of presentation. This tendency also prevails in the schools for colored people and is especially noticeable in the work of colored teachers who have attained to considerable scholarship in northern colleges. It is not surprising that these ambitious young teachers, filled with enthusiasm for the great truths acquired in their college course, should overlook the very limited experience of their pupils and endeavor to teach with but little regard for the pupil's ability to comprehend the facts. The result is unfortunate. Although the pupils are eager to acquire knowledge, their home life and their elementary education have been such that they can not be expected to understand the truths which the young teacher so fluently outlines.

Too much emphasis can not be placed upon the teacher's effort to understand the pupil, his environment and needs, his mind processes, his traditions and superstitions, his ambitions, his means of support, and his health. The teacher should know the homes and the neighborhoods from which the pupils have come, and he should endeavor to understand the demands which the community will make upon the student when school days are done. With such a vital appreciation of the pupil and his community, the teacher will not be content to deliver lectures of abstract wisdom based on ancient civilization or even on modern research. He will insist on a method of instruction that compels the pupil to work out the great truths in terms of personal experience. Instead of merely talking to the pupil, he will talk and work with the pupil. There will be an interchange between pupil and teacher and between pupil and pupil. The classroom will be a community instead of a lecture hall. With his pupils, the teacher will first proceed to the laboratory to work out the ideas under the favorable conditions that can be controlled; he will then guide them to the actual conditions of real life; and together they will "learn to do by doing."

"SIX-AND-SIX" ORGANIZATION.

The usual period of secondary education in the United States consists of four years, following eight years of elementary instruction. There is now an increasing demand for a reorganization on the basis of six years of elementary work and six years of secondary instruction. This division appears to be more in accord with the psychological development of the pupil as well as more practical in a number of important particulars.

While it is probably desirable that this reorganization shall be ultimately effected in the colored schools, the change should be made with great care. The reason for this apprehension is in the condition of the public elementary schools for Negroes in the South. Because of the short term, inadequate equipment, and poor teachers, elementary courses requiring but six years in the white schools will probably require for many years to come at least eight years in the colored schools.

Whatever plan is adopted, it is most important that the fact shall be recognized that a large majority of the pupils do not advance beyond the seventh grade and, therefore, that the important subjects shall be presented both in the elementary and secondary grades. The elements of physiology and hygiene, for example, should be offered not later than the seventh grades, and there should be a more advanced presentation in the

eleventh or twelfth year. The minimum requirements for entrance into the ninth grade should be a reasonable command of the English language, the mastery of the arithmetical processes required in daily activities, enough of history to understand the development of the United States, a practical knowledge of physiology and hygiene, a working acquaintance with gardening, and enough experience in technical hand work, not only to awaken an interest in the occupations of the masses, but also to enable the pupil to perform the simple mechanical tasks needed in any vocation.

TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The type of secondary education should vary with the needs of the community. It is apparent that an effective institution in the rural district must be organized with reference to the agricultural life of the people. A city school should likewise have regard for the industrial, hygienic, and educational needs of the urban community. There are also schools that select special objectives, such as the training of teachers, ministers, farmers, or industrial workers. The special features of the different types are described in the other chapters of this volume. With all their variations there are, however, a number of subjects and activities that should be included in the curriculum of all secondary schools.

CORRELATION OF ALL SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.

With the adoption of the welfare of the pupil and the community as the objectives of educational effort, every school activity will be so directed as to contribute to these ends in every possible direction. Not only will the English course, for example, contribute an appreciation of the English language, but every opportunity will be taken in the course to broaden the pupil's interest in such vital topics as agriculture, sanitation, right conduct, and future occupation. Arithmetical processes will be used to enable the pupil to have a clearer understanding of his community. Percentages will be calculated to show the decrease of illiteracy, the increase in land ownership, the relative death rate of cities and States, etc. Thus each school activity would so far as possible be made to supplement the contributions of all the others.

EQUIPMENT.

Provision for the teaching of the physical sciences, civics, and teacher-training, the industrial arts and gardening, requires laboratory and library facilities far beyond those of the literary schools. With few exceptions, the secondary schools for Negroes are utterly lacking in laboratories or libraries. The extent to which this description applies even to the better types of schools is indicated in the following words by a recent visitor to a number of these institutions:

How often, as we were being shown through buildings, would our guide unlock a door and usher us into a carefully closed and unfrequented room and say: "This is our library." The "libraries" were usually a collection of old uninteresting books, almost no stories that young people like, no reference books worth while—usually just a collection sent down by some one wishing to get rid of them, but thinking them too good to burn up. In neglecting the library to this extent, the schools not only lose a great opportunity for improving the children, but also a great opportunity of being of service to the older people of the community. School libraries, properly stocked and open to the public, would be of greater service to the parents and patrons, and would center their interest more in the life of the institution.

HIGH-SCHOOL PERIOD AS A TESTING TIME.

The function of secondary education in testing the aptitudes of pupils is most important. Under the six-and-six plan, this process could begin with the seventh grade. The importance of this phase of education has been well described by Clarence D. Kingsley, of Massachusetts, in an address before the National Education Association:

The work of the schools is not completed simply by offering many kinds of training. The school must assist in the whole process of adjusting the pupil to life. Whatever else education must consist of, these three phases are essential: Namely, first, a conception of the variety and significance of the world's work; secondly, the discovery of aptitudes, largely through the process of testing aptitudes; and third, training. The adjustment of the individual to life is broader than the adjustment to vocation. It includes also the selection of avocation, the enlargement of interests, and the preparation for citizenship. For all these ends a broad knowledge of the world's work and the discovery of personal aptitudes are necessary. Our conception of education must therefore be broadened so as to include testing as well as training, and the schools must be reorganized so as to afford an opportunity for each individual to test his aptitudes in as wide a variety of work as possible. For some the period of testing must be short, for others it may be longer, but for all it is highly important.

STUDIES AND ACTIVITIES COMMON TO VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOLS.

In view of the radical reorganizations proposed by educational leaders of undoubted ability, it seems wise to assemble herewith some of the more suggestive and authoritative statements concerning the subjects and activities usually found in the high-school curriculum:

English.—The importance of English in secondary education is universally acknowledged. But the brief time allowed, the narrow aim and the ineffective methods of teaching, frequently destroy the value of the subject. In many colored schools, the domination of foreign languages is so pronounced as to necessitate the decrease of the time allowed for the English language and literature.

The possibilities of the English course are impressively shown in the statement of aims made by James F. Hosis, of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education:

Stated broadly, it should be the purpose of every English teacher, first, to quicken the spirit and kindle the imagination of his pupils, open up to them the potential significance and beauty of life, and develop habits of weighing and judging human conduct and of turning to books for entertainment, instruction, and inspiration as their hours of leisure may permit; second, to supply the pupils with an effective tool of thought and of expression for use in their public and private life; i. e., the best command of language which, under the circumstances, can be given them.

The particular results to be sought in the English course may be more definitely outlined as follows:

- (a) To give the pupils command of the art of communication in speech and in writing.
- (b) To teach them to read thoughtfully and with appreciation; to form in them a taste for good reading, and to teach them how to find books that are worth while.

Gardening and rural economics.—The remarkable achievements of scientific agriculture afford ample basis for its study in secondary education. The increasing importance of the rural problem in national affairs constitutes a further claim for the study of this subject in the high schools. In a section so largely rural as the South and with a people so overwhelmingly rural as the Negroes, there is no subject of more vital importance than the appreciation of the soil and its possibilities. In view of this, it is surprising that



A. USEFUL ARTICLES MADE IN THE MANUAL TRAINING CLASS.



B. SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

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DUNBAR HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

the study of agriculture has received less consideration than even the mechanical arts. In a choice of agriculture or the mechanical arts for colored schools, preference should generally be given to agriculture, not only because it represents the prevailing occupation of the Negroes, but also because the expense of teaching the subject is much less than that of the mechanical arts. The essential elements of this course, as explained in the chapter on rural education, are the theory and practice of gardening and rural economics.

Languages.—Frequent reference has been made in this report to the domination of foreign languages, especially Latin and Greek, in the colored schools. There is probably no group of schools in the country that is so enslaved to ancient languages as the literary group of colored institutions. An explanation of this condition has already been indicated in an earlier section and will be referred to more in detail in the chapter on college education.

It is not necessary to consider the relative merits of the study of different foreign or ancient languages. All will admit some value in any language. The selection of the language and the time to be assigned to it in colored schools should depend entirely on the practical disciplinary and cultural value of the study of that language in comparison with other subjects or activities in the course. How much time can be spared for Latin when the pupil has not a respectable knowledge of the English language? Can time be given to Greek when the pupil is ignorant of the elements of physics or chemistry? Should French be studied if it means the exclusion of physiology or hygiene from the curriculum? These are the administrative problems to be considered. There is no doubt whatever that an immense amount of time is relatively wasted in trying to give a smattering of two or three languages. Sound policy would be to teach one language so thoroughly that the pupil has real control of it for his future study and recreation. Modern languages are generally to be preferred to ancient languages. The mastery of French or German or Spanish would be immeasurably more valuable than a superficial knowledge of a dozen languages, ancient or modern.

Mathematics.—Mathematics has a genuine claim to an important place in secondary education. Quantitative statements of all physical and social activities demand a knowledge of mathematical processes. The manipulation of the definite relationships of exact factors as they appear in mathematics is a most valuable mental activity, which all pupils should have. To emotional groups, prone to action without adequate thought, thorough practice in mathematical processes is essential.

The questions that have recently arisen with regard to the place of mathematics in the school curriculum do not pertain to the essential value of this subject. The points of doubt are on such questions as: How much time shall be devoted to the various branches of mathematics? How much should mathematics be taught in problems related to the life of the pupil and the community? What are the relative claims of mathematics as against other studies?

The answer to these questions for colored schools should probably be determined by the very inadequate instruction in arithmetic given in the elementary schools and also by the student's need of other subjects more vitally related to his community. It is probable that the wise course for a majority of these schools would be to require a thorough

knowledge of fundamental arithmetical processes with sufficient skill for practical use, special proficiency in the applications of arithmetic to the pupils' occupations, with a limited amount of algebra and geometry to aid in arithmetical processes. Possibly the following recommendation of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in New England is adapted to the needs of some of the schools:

A one-year course in elementary algebra and geometry of a concrete sort, designed, so far as possible, to test the pupil's qualifications for future mathematical study.

Mechanical and household arts.—In addition to the "training of the senses," which President Eliot urges for the American youth, there is need for a more intelligent appreciation of the mechanical activities and household arts of the masses of the people. The youth of the land should have an opportunity to test out their interest and their aptitudes as a basis for the selection of their life work. In view of the ever broadening sphere of women's activities, the young women of the nation are especially in need of a comprehensive knowledge of the home, its activities, and its social significance. If these are necessary elements in the education of the white youth of the country, surely the colored youth should have every opportunity to acquire them. Every colored high school should provide for the boys some training of the hand in mechanical and agricultural activities and sufficient knowledge of economic and social processes to show the place of this skill in human development. For the girls there should be a course in household arts that not only insures practical skill but also an appreciation of the vital place of the home in the welfare of the race.

Physiology, hygiene, and sanitation.—The principles of good health should be taught both in the elementary and secondary grades. The study of physiology and hygiene is of value not only in the improvement of health conditions but also in the development of a scientific point of view by the pupils. There is probably no subject more effective in overcoming superstition in all its forms than a knowledge of the principles that underly the health of the individual and the community. With the discovery that malaria is traceable to mosquitoes and typhoid fever to flies and filth, the pupil is able to free himself from the superstitions of his community and begin to develop a scientific attitude toward the physical and social forces that surround him.

For the colored race, with its death rate much higher than that of the white people, it is most important that something should be done to give a comprehensive knowledge of physiology and hygiene and to inculcate habits of obedience to health laws.

Sciences.—The great achievements of modern times are largely in the realm of the physical sciences. Physics, chemistry, and biology have revolutionized many of the industrial and social activities of mankind. No phase of secondary education is more vital than the instruction of the pupils in the elements of these sciences. The following extracts from the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education suggest some of the aims and methods in the teaching of these subjects:

It is of the utmost importance that the pupil should gain power to apply the facts and principles of science and to interpret natural phenomena. For this reason the teacher of science should draw largely from material found in the environment and should by no means confine attention to the statements in the textbook or to the laboratory exercises. The work in science should be so organized as to lead the pupil to acquire skill in manipulating apparatus and in dealing intelligently with facts and phenomena.

As one result of the high-school work in any science, the pupil should increase his store of general information and become interested in reading books on science and in studying phenomena and almost instinctively approach the facts of nature and of industry from the scientific standpoint. It is obvious that in organizing science courses careful attention must be paid to the maturity of the pupil. Work that appeals to the boy or girl of 13 or 14 is not of a nature likely to interest a pupil in the upper classes of the high school.

In addition to the results of science teaching upon the development of the individual, the committee should consider in what ways science instruction may contribute to the well-being and progress of the community. By selecting material for study from the industries of the town or city and by acquainting the pupil with local application of physics, chemistry, and biology the science teacher can develop interest in and promote intelligence regarding community activities. A pupil thus trained should be a better citizen because his habit of mind will lead him to apply the criteria of science to community affairs.

Social studies, including history.—Each study in the group that comprises history, community civics, and elementary economics has great possibilities if the teacher has any appreciation of the remarkable social forces that are now working vital changes in human affairs. The following quotations from the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education will indicate the character of the work in social studies:

Good citizenship should be the aim of social studies in the high school. While the administration and instruction throughout the school should contribute to the social welfare of the community, it is maintained that social studies have direct responsibility in this field. Facts, conditions, theories, and activities that do not contribute rather directly to the appreciation of methods of human betterment have no claim. Under this test the old civics, almost exclusively a study of Government machinery, must give way to the new civics, a study of all manner of social efforts to improve mankind. It is not so important that the pupil know how the President is elected as that he shall understand the duties of the health officer in his community. The time formerly spent in the effort to understand the process of passing a law over the President's veto is now to be more profitably used in the observation of the vocational resources of the community. In line with this emphasis the committee recommends that social studies in the high school shall include such topics as the following: Community health, housing, and homes, public recreation, good roads, community education, poverty and the care of the poor, crime and reform, family income, and savings banks and life insurance.

It is one of the essential qualifications of the good citizen to be self-supporting, and by the activities necessary to his self-support to contribute efficiently to the world's work. Not only is it important that this fact be especially emphasized in the civic education of the youth, but it is also appropriate that he be given as much enlightenment as possible to assist him in choosing his vocation wisely from the standpoint of social efficiency. The Committee on Social Studies believes that all education should take account of vocational needs and should contribute to the preparation of the youth for an intelligent choice of vocation and for efficiency in it.

History, too, must answer the test of good citizenship. The old chronicler who recorded the deeds of kings and warriors and neglected the labors of the common man is dead. The great palaces and cathedrals and pyramids are often but the empty shells of a parasitic growth on the working group. The elaborate descriptions of these old tombs are but sounding brass and tinkling cymbals compared to the record of the joy and sorrows, the hopes and disappointments of the masses, who are infinitely more important than any arrangement of wood and stone and iron. In this spirit recent history is more important than that of ancient times; the history of our own country than that of foreign lands; the record of our own institutions and activities than that of strangers; the labors and plans of the multitudes than the pleasures and dreams of the few.

In order that this aim may be realized, the committee outlines the social studies as follows:

I. *Community civics*—1 year.

The committee recommends a course in community civics in both eighth and ninth grades. The nature of the ninth grade course will depend in a measure upon the extent and character of the eighth-grade work. At all events, the committee recommends that a portion of the ninth-grade work be devoted to the civic relations of vocational or economic life. (See discussion below in section on "Community civics.")

II. *History*—2 years or 3 years.

1. European history to about the year 1700, including, on the one hand, the essentials of ancient history, and on the other hand, the period of American exploration and colonization from the standpoint of European expansion..... 1 year.
2. European history since about the year 1700, including English history..... 1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.
3. American history since about the year 1700..... 1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

III. *A fourth year course of "social study"*—1 year.

This course admits of considerable variation, according to local circumstances. The committee urges, however, the adaptation to high-school requirements of a course involving consideration of various problems in their civic, economic, and sociological aspects.

Teacher training.—The training of teachers for the elementary schools is undoubtedly one of the most important activities of secondary education. So long as the number of genuine normal schools is so small and teachers' salaries the country over are so inadequate, the supply of elementary school teachers will largely depend on the high schools. In view of the distressing demand for trained teachers of the colored elementary schools, all secondary schools should plan their curriculum with this need in mind. Provision should be made for some teacher-training subjects in every school. So far as possible, there should also be opportunity for observation and practice teaching.

Supplementary subjects.—Three other subjects are of such special importance that their claims on secondary education must be mentioned. These three subjects are business methods, the development of good taste through simple lessons in art, and music. Sound ideals and habits in business are fundamental to all people. For the colored people, just beginning their business activities, it is absolutely essential that the schools shall not only give a knowledge of business methods, but that they shall cultivate habits of business promptness and fidelity. Music is described by one school as the "natural heritage of the Negro," and it is pointed out that it is the aim of the school to turn this heritage to practical account. Lessons in good taste are of value in the care of the home, in the selection of dress, and in improving the appearance of the neighborhood.

General conduct.—The best educational thought is urging the essential value of general conduct in the training of the youth. Following the example of the successful manufacturers, the educators are seeking out the "by-products" of school work and they are discovering that these "by-products" have values far beyond their expectations. These elements in education are illustrated by the following quotations from the description of the Bedales School, an English institution which is conducting a remarkably effective educational work:

It is as much the duty and as much in the power of the schoolmaster to train to healthy habits of body as to logical habits of thought. We are not responsible for the material that is placed in our hands; we can not make all children strong, or clever, or great; but we are in large measure responsible for the

ideas, the motives, the habits with which they leave school, and which will to a larger extent than we ordinarily realize, shape their afterlives. A large part of our care, therefore, must be given to building up a healthy body and forming the habits that are to last through life; and to this end, there is much more to do than merely to arrange for a daily game and a "liberal" diet, though these are, of course, the things that bulk largest in the eyes of the boys themselves, and therefore of their parents.

Food: In the matter of food, to begin with this, we have to see not only to the quantity or even to the quality of what is provided—and the way it is cooked and served is hardly less important than the quality of the food itself—but we must see, too, that there is sufficient variety, and that the meals come at the right times and are not unduly hurried. A different diet, with a different proportion, for example, of meat is needed at different ages; but throughout there must be a sufficiency of wholesome sweet food, unless natural cravings are to be forced to find satisfaction in unwholesome ways, and habits of self-indulgence fostered that, under other forms, will last into later life.

Clothing: Clothing is another matter in which the school must insist on the observance of certain rules. It must be warm, light, and porous, and give the utmost freedom of movement; and while external appearance is by no means unimportant, it must not be allowed to overrule these other considerations. For girls we require a loose dress with cloth knickers and skirt; and for all active exercise a "gymnastic" costume. Woolen underclothing we require for all; and for boys, flannel shirts and collars, thick coats, knickers, and stockings. And attention to clothes must not be required only for girls; each boy also has to give a certain amount of time and trouble to the cleaning and orderly keeping of his clothes, this being tested by regular inspections.

Personal cleanliness and dormitory inspection: To turn next to cleanliness of body. This must be held to mean more than the washing of face and hands, with a warm bath once a week. With us a boy has a cold "tub" in the morning, a sponge-down from head to foot every afternoon after games or outdoor work, and a thorough wash at bedtime, followed by an inspection to see if head, ears, teeth, hands, and feet are properly brushed and washed, until the habit is fixed and he goes upon the "clean" list exempt from further inspection. Boys who have many active occupations may not always be outwardly of the neatest, but they can be taught none the less to value a cleanliness which is the more real for not being only for outward show. No less important is the teaching of respect for bodily function. The need of regularity of habit in this respect is as commonly neglected both at home and at school as it is insisted upon by the medical profession. It is not enough to give advice; with children it must be made a matter of the daily time-table, like meals or lessons, and enforced like these, and so the whole of this part of life lifted to a more natural and more wholesome level.

Length of hours of work: A matter whose importance is more readily admitted is the appointment of the hours of activity and rest. Above all, enough time must be allotted to sleep, and no encroachment must be allowed upon this time for purposes of study at night; extra time, if wanted, must be taken in the early morning, which is easy to healthy boys, especially if, as with us, there is never any class work before breakfast. Next to this all-important question of sleep is that of the duration of the hours of brain work. The greater the demand made on the brain, the shorter must the period be, whereas a drawing or carpentry lesson or experimental work in the laboratory—in all of which there are continual changes of position and moments of rest—may last for an hour and a half, or sometimes even longer. For most class subjects we regard 45 minutes as the limit of effective attention in the Middle School, and less than this with the younger children. After two lessons at most there is a break long enough to get into the open air; and of the five "periods" into which the morning is divided, one is given up to outdoor drill, or, in summer, to bathing, so that the brain is not at stretch the whole morning through. In this way, and by the alternation of head and hand work throughout the day, as already described, the risk of mental overstrain and the dulling effect of long hours of monotonous work are minimized, though still with any time-table there is need of individual watchfulness to guard against overapplication as well as against laziness.

Fresh air: Freshness of brain is the first requisite for all headwork that is worth doing, and to insure this we must have not only short and varied hours, but fresh air, too. Necessarily for all, it is doubly necessary for children and in all rooms where brainwork is going on. Of all means for efficient ventilation, we believe in none so much as open windows day and night—not opened just enough to produce a draft, but wide open, so that it is impossible for the room to get close or stuffy. It is of course necessary to warm the rooms well with open fires; or better, because more thoroughly, with hot water; but all who

are once used to open windows (and we have not found the process of acclimatization either long or dangerous) come to dislike hot rooms. Fresh air and sunshine we must have if there is to be vigorous life of body and brain, and we must have them indoors as well as out. With these the risks of infection are reduced, and illness, when it comes, is usually less serious. Of course prompt isolation must be possible, and rooms set apart for those who, while not yet ill, are yet not thoroughly fit for the ordinary life. For all smaller ailments, watchfulness and promptitude, and the care of a trained nurse, are all important. The doctor is necessary in reserve, but the matron's watchful care ~~must~~ always be the first and chief line of defense against illness.

IV. COLLEGE AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

No type of education is so eagerly sought by the colored people as college education. Yet no educational institutions for colored people are so poorly equipped and so ineffectively organized and administered as the majority of those claiming to give college education. Howard University is an institution of university proportions, but its endowment is negligible. Fisk University is genuinely a college according to most of the standards, but its endowment is not sufficient. Atlanta University, Meharry Medical College, Virginia Union University, Morehouse College, Bishop College, Lincoln University, Benedict College, Talladega College, Tougaloo College, Knoxville College, Shaw University, Claflin College, and a few others are offering instruction of college grade, but the number of college students in most of these institutions is not more than 10 per cent of the total enrollment and they are therefore compelled to devote the major portion of their resources to secondary education.

It is evident that the welfare of ten million people, whose existence is beset with so many perplexing problems, requires the best education of all types that society can provide. If college education is of value to any group, surely it is to those who are to be the leaders of the colored people. Only a broad-minded leadership with a thorough grasp of human development can understand the peculiar difficulties resulting from the close proximity of such widely varying races as the black and the white people of the Southern States. All the wisdom of history is needed to enable the colored teachers and religious leaders to realize that the difficulties of the American Negro have been experienced wherever diverse races have been compelled to live together, that the obstacles confronting the race are not insurmountable, that other peoples have struggled through similar trials and have won a place among the nations of the earth. More and more the leadership of the race is devolving upon its strong and capable men and women. Successful leadership requires the best lessons of economics, sociology, and education. Without such leadership for both the white and colored peoples, race problems will multiply and increase in perplexity and menace to the Nation. The race must have physicians with real skill and the spirit of service to lead against the insanitary conditions that are threatening not only the colored people but also their white neighbors. The Negroes must have religious teachers who can relate religion to individual morals and to the common activities of the community. They must have teachers of secondary schools who have had college training in the modern sciences and in the historical development of civilization.

In their eagerness for college education many of the colored institutions have multiplied the number of so-called college departments, not only to the injury of other divisions of the schools, but also to the serious limitation of real college education. Many of them are endeavoring to maintain college classes for less than 5 per cent of their enrollment when the number of teachers is not sufficient to instruct the elementary and secondary classes. In one school visited, large elementary grades were being taught by pupil-teachers, while one well-trained teacher was giving the recitation period to the instruc-

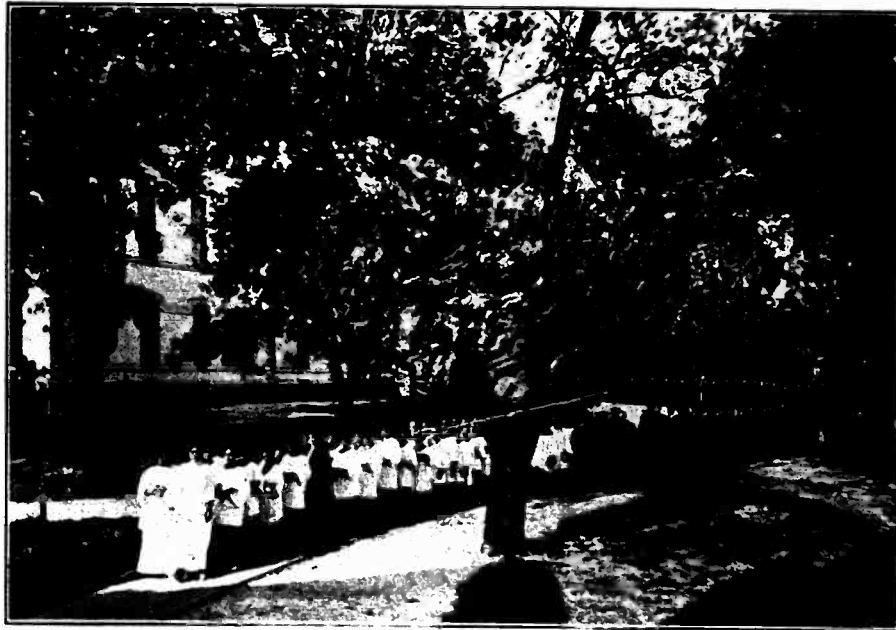
tion of one pupil in the Greek language. The principal of another school with about 300 pupils in the eight elementary grades, 100 pupils in the four secondary classes, and 20 pupils in college subjects, assigned five teachers to the elementary classes, six to the secondary and college, one to industries, one to music, one to commercial subjects, and three to the boarding department. In order to maintain the college classes, he substituted instruction in music, science, and elementary subjects for the industrial classes in the main industrial building and sacrificed efficiency both in the elementary and secondary grades. His defense for all this was: "My 35 girls and boys of our college department the present year are worth more than 500 unbaked fellows of the ordinary normal course."

The duplication of college departments is increased not only by the personal ambition of school presidents but also by the desire of different denominations to have the pupils of their church attend their own colleges. So far as the grade of the work is indicated by the names of the institutions, duplications in the efforts to do college work may be seen in the location of two or more so-called colleges for Negroes in Selma, Ala.; Little Rock, Ark.; Atlanta, Ga.; New Orleans, La.; Holly Springs and Jackson, Miss.; Greensboro, N. C.; Columbia and Orangeburg, S. C.; Nashville, Tenn.; Austin, Marshall, and Waco, Tex.

The colleges have been further handicapped by the tenacity with which they have clung to the classical form of the curriculum. They have had an almost fatalistic belief not only in the powers of the college, but in the Latin and Greek features of the course. The majority of them seem to have more interest in the traditional forms of education than in adaption to the needs of their pupils and their community. Ingenuously some of their leaders have been urging secondary schools to prepare their pupils for college rather than for life. In all this, to be sure, they are following in the footsteps of the schools for white people. It is only within the past few years that educational leaders of the country have begun to realize that the college curriculum is to be adapted to the needs of the students; that college activities are subject to the tests of service to the community in exactly the same degree as any other activity that seeks social support. There is no doubt that many of these institutions will respond to the test when the educational leaders of the race fully understand the educational trend.

It is not to be understood that the colleges have not made a valuable contribution to the welfare of the colored people and of the South. The early founders of these institutions were men and women of high ideals whose daily life gave to the freedmen a more precious heritage than any type of curriculum could possibly provide. With such teachers, educational forms are of comparatively little importance. These noble men and women were building according to the time in which they were living. The early American colleges had definitely prescribed courses of a highly classical type. In outlining the evolution of the university, Dr. S. P. Copen, of the United States Bureau of Education, has said:

From the origin of the college to the foundation of the graduate schools the college curriculum, aside from the development of separate courses in science and engineering, had undergone but slight change. A few new subjects had been added to it from time to time. Options between certain studies, as for instance, between a modern and an ancient language or between two elementary sciences, were slowly introduced. In general, however, the college program of studies was fixed and definite centering about a core of Latin, Greek, and mathematics.



A. A COMMENCEMENT FOR SERVICE.



B. STUDENT SOCIAL WORKERS IN A WASHINGTON ALLEY.

Such was the curriculum adopted by the early Negro colleges, and their limited income and teaching force have made it almost impossible for the majority of them to introduce the newer college courses, as their value has become recognized by modern educators.

STANDARDS OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE.

In order to determine the status of the colored schools attempting college work, it is necessary to outline the present standards of the American college. These standards have been variously defined by different organizations. Among the more generally recognized requirements are those outlined by the Carnegie Foundation, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and the Iowa State Legislature requirements of 1912 and 1916. The following outline presents these standards as defined by three of the organizations named:

STANDARD REQUIREMENTS FOR AMERICAN COLLEGES.

	<i>Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York).</i>	<i>North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.</i>	<i>Iowa State requirements, 1916.</i>
<i>Course.....</i>	Four years.....	Four years, broad curriculum, scientific spirit, and conservatism in granting degrees.	Same as North Central.
<i>Teachers.....</i>	High scholarship.....	Graduation from equivalent college, M. A.	Graduation from standard college with equivalent of Ph. D.
<i>Entrance.....</i>	Not less than 14 units.....	Not less than 14 units.....	Four-year secondary course.
<i>Graduation.....</i>		120 semester hours.....	
<i>Equipment.....</i>	Sufficient to illustrate courses.	Library and laboratory sufficient to illustrate courses.	Library, \$15,000, and laboratory, \$15,000.
<i>Income.....</i>	Adequate.....	Endowment of \$200,000.	Endowment of \$500,000 or income of \$25,000.
<i>Departments.....</i>	Six distinct departments with full professor in each.	Eight distinct departments with a full-time professor in each.	Ten full college professorships.
<i>Hours per professor.....</i>		Maximum 18, 15 recommended.	Maximum 16.
<i>Academy.....</i>	If maintained must be under separate faculty and discipline.		

It will be observed from this table that requirements upon which these outlines agree are as follows: Four years of college work following four years of secondary work; a minimum of 14 units of secondary subjects or the completion of 14 courses each of which shall include four or five hours a week for a full year; the instruction to be given by teach-

ers whose preparation is higher than that of the department in which they are working; at least six departments or professorships with one professor giving full time to each department; the income to be sufficient to maintain professors of scholarship and to supply adequate library and laboratory facilities. To these, the Southern Association and the Carnegie Foundation add the recommendation that the maintenance of a preparatory department is not desirable and in no case should it be under the same faculty and discipline as the college. These standards are the minimum requirements of an American college. Those of the North Central Association are more rigid and comprehensive than those outlined above. In 1912 Iowa surpassed even the North Central requirements, and in 1916 this State further raised the standards.

The present tendency is undoubtedly to make the college a strong institution with ample facilities for effective work. With this tendency is a demand that the curriculum shall be broadened to give more emphasis to the great sciences of modern times both in the entrance requirements and in the college course. The traditional two years of Latin and Greek are not regarded as essential except to those preparing for literary pursuits. In some of the especially progressive institutions, no foreign language is required either for entrance or for graduation. The University of California is one of the most prominent examples of freedom from foreign languages. Similarly higher mathematics are not so much emphasized in the college curriculum. Calculus, analytical geometry, and trigonometry are being limited to the scientific and engineering courses. Among the subjects that are receiving increasing recognition are the physical sciences, economics, sociology, history, and teacher-training subjects.

Probably the most marked changes in the American college have been in the broadening of the entrance requirements. As long as the chief emphasis in the college course was upon Latin, Greek, and mathematics, the entrance requirements also placed great stress upon these subjects. Taking the unit of measure to be a year of high-school work of 36 to 40 weeks for four or five periods a week, the 9 prescribed units for entrance were: Latin, 3; Greek, 2 or 3; and mathematics, 2 or 3. The prescription of the National Education Association is, however: English, 3; foreign language, 2; mathematics, 2; history and social science, 1; and natural science, 1. The more recent movements recognize that one year of instruction in the natural sciences and one year in the social sciences is entirely too little in which to give the secondary pupil an adequate knowledge of the physical and social forces which control human society. The most modern change in secondary courses is, therefore, the substitution of social and physical science for some of the foreign languages or mathematics.

STANDARDS OF COLLEGES FOR NEGROES.

Hardly a colored college meets the standards set by the Carnegie Foundation and the North Central Association. The individual reports in the second volume indicate the amount of college work done by each institution. The following table of institutions classified according to the characterization given them in the individual school report makes possible a comparison of these schools with the standards of American colleges just given.

TABLE I.—Colored colleges in the United States, 1916-17, classified according to the characterization given them in the individual school report.

COLLEGE AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

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CLASSIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR NEGROES.

Characterization and name of college.	Support.	College statements.	Professional.	Other statements.
<i>All colleges.....</i>		1,643	994	10,089
<i>"Colleges"</i>		722	972	717
Fisk University.....	Independent.....	188		317
Howard University.....	Federal.....	534	467	400
Meharry Medical School.....	Independent.....		505	
<i>"Secondary and college"</i>		675	22	4,789
Atlanta University.....	Independent.....	44		542
Benedict College.....	Baptist.....	45		462
Bishop College.....	do.....	42		329
Claflin College.....	Methodist.....	26		788
Knoxville College.....	United Presbyterian.....	30		297
Lincoln University.....	Presbyterian.....	130		86
Morehouse College.....	Baptist.....	49		246
Morgan College.....	Methodist.....	26		55
Shaw University.....	Baptist.....	24	22	175
Talladega College.....	Congregational.....	45		516
Tougaloo College.....	do.....	20		424
Wilberforce University.....	A. M. E.....	65		128
Wilberforce Combined Normal and Industrial Department.....	State.....	40		191
Wiley College.....	Methodist.....	38		346
Virginia Union University.....	Baptist.....	51		204
<i>"College subjects"</i>		246		4,583
Arkansas Baptist College.....	Baptist.....	13		300
Biddle University.....	Presbyterian.....	22		185
Clark University.....	Methodist.....	32		272
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	Land-grant.....	12		333
Lane College.....	C. M. E.....	10		208
Livingstone College.....	A. M. E. Z.....	17		174
Morris Brown University.....	A. M. E.....	10		498
New Orleans College.....	Methodist.....	9		223
Paine College.....	M. E. South.....	14		188
Paul Quinn College.....	A. M. E.....	13		273
Philander Smith College.....	Methodist.....	39		400
Rust College.....	do.....	8		188
Sam Houston College.....	do.....	18		359
Straight College.....	Congregational.....	11		567
Tillotson College.....	do.....	18		215

¹ Includes 18 students from Spelman Seminary.

Under a liberal interpretation of college work, only 33 of the 653 private and State schools for colored people are teaching any subjects of college grade. Of the 12,726 pupils in total attendance on these institutions, only 1,643 are studying college subjects and 994 are in professional classes. The remaining 10,089 pupils are in the elementary and secondary grades.

In reply to a questionnaire sent to all the Northern colleges, 66 reported a total of 430 Negro students of college or university grade. Of these 309 were in college, 86 were in medical, dental, and pharmaceutical courses; 10 were in theological schools; 18 in law courses; and 7 in veterinary medicine. It is probable that the total number of students in northern institutions is at least 500.

Only three institutions, Howard University, Fisk University, and Meharry Medical College, have student bodies, teaching force and equipment, and income sufficient to warrant the characterization of "college." Nearly half of the college students and practically all of the professional students are in these institutions.

The 15 institutions characterized as "secondary and college" represent a wide variation in the essentials of college work. They are thus grouped because all of them have a comparatively small college enrollment and the majority of them maintain elementary and secondary classes forming 90 per cent of their total enrollment. With one or two exceptions they are limited in both teaching force and equipment. With all their limitations, however, a number of these institutions are maintaining satisfactory entrance requirements and insisting on thoroughness in work.

The 15 institutions offering college subjects are schools of elementary and secondary grade whose teaching force make it possible to provide instruction in a few college subjects. They have neither the equipment nor the teachers to maintain college classes.

Even in the first two groups, which are characterized as schools of "college" and of "secondary and college" grade, there is hardly an institution which satisfies the full requirements of the American college. All but one are compelled by the present condition of secondary schools to maintain large preparatory departments. While these departments take a large proportion of the time and energy of the institution they are essential to the development of the colored people and it is therefore better that the college work be postponed in most of the institutions until the secondary department is developed and a separate faculty can be maintained. There are but four of the 17 colleges of these two groups whose faculties are sufficiently large to do justice to their preparatory departments and at the same time meet the standard requirement of six college departments with a full-time professor. In some of the remaining institutions the effort to maintain both a college and a secondary department with the small faculties available limits the opportunities not only of the large enrollment of secondary students but also of the college department. Only four institutions, whose faculties satisfy the standard requirement, are able to offer provision for a broad choice of electives. The course is particularly narrow in some of the schools whose secondary and college faculties include only seven or eight teachers. It is undoubtedly wasteful to offer college work with only five or six teachers who must divide their time between secondary and college classes.

In addition to the handicap imposed by the small faculty, the college courses of the majority have not developed sufficiently in accordance with modern standards. A few allow the substitution of French or German for Greek, but practically all require Latin and two or three years of advanced mathematics. Within the past three years the Freedman's Aid Society has abolished the teaching of Greek in all but one of its schools. Very few have either the teachers or the laboratories to maintain adequate courses in the physical sciences. Though economics has been introduced into the curriculum of a few of them, the study of social conditions has made comparatively little headway. If the arbitrary minimum of \$5,000 for library and \$5,000 for laboratory equipment be applied, there are but four institutions whose equipment fulfills the requirement.

The standard requirement which is met by most of the institutions is the catalogue statement of 14 units for entrance. In the effort to secure students, however, some of the institutions do not enforce these requirements. In view of the fact that so many of the secondary schools are poorly supported and loosely managed private institutions, the only satisfactory way of admitting pupils must, for some time to come, be through written examination. The only alternative is to assign to a member of the faculty the duty of obtaining a first hand rating of the larger secondary schools from which students are drawn. With the exception of a few institutions, there does not appear to be any hope of immediate relief from the struggle which the schools are making to maintain college departments. Only 10 of them have total incomes of over \$20,000, excluding board and tuition. This amount is exceedingly small when it is remembered that in addition to the budget of the college it must cover the expenses of administration and maintenance of large secondary and sometimes even elementary departments.

NEED AND DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES.

It is apparent that the present condition of college education in colored schools is most unsatisfactory. There is a growing conviction among the colored people and their friends that some way out must be discovered. In a strong appeal for cooperation to eliminate duplication and to combine in the advocacy of at least one well-equipped college, Nathan B. Young, the president of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, recently spoke to that association as follows:

Here is an inviting task for those of us who are directly responsible for the educational uplift of the Negro to supply the promoters and managers of these foundations with the information necessary to convince them of the wisdom of this new departure. For once let us lay aside solicitation and even solicitude for our own educational enterprises in the interest of this larger educational enterprise—one that prophesies so much not only for the quickened life of our own institutions but also for the general educational project upon which we are all at work.

The first condition of success in this undertaking is that every institution shall resolve to adapt its plans to the needs of its pupils with full consideration for their previous training and their future possibilities. Every school should consider its income, its plant, and its teaching force in determining the grade of work to be undertaken. Above all, every institution should realize that success and honor and human service are not necessarily attained through a college department nor even through an industrial or agricultural plant.

There are many difficulties in determining the college departments that are now ready for further development. The present geographical distribution of colored colleges, real and nominal, is the result of many forces. As in the case of the white institutions, the cities with their railroad facilities have attracted the larger schools. Police protection was also a factor in the early days. Denominational demands have added much to duplication of effort in this respect. The most striking illustration of this is the multiplication of facilities in Atlanta, Ga. Beginning with Atlanta University in 1867, one school after another was founded in this city until now there are five large institutions. Clark University was founded in 1870 by the Northern Methodist Church; Spelman Seminary was begun in 1881; Morris Brown University was opened in 1885, and Morehouse College was moved to Atlanta in 1890.

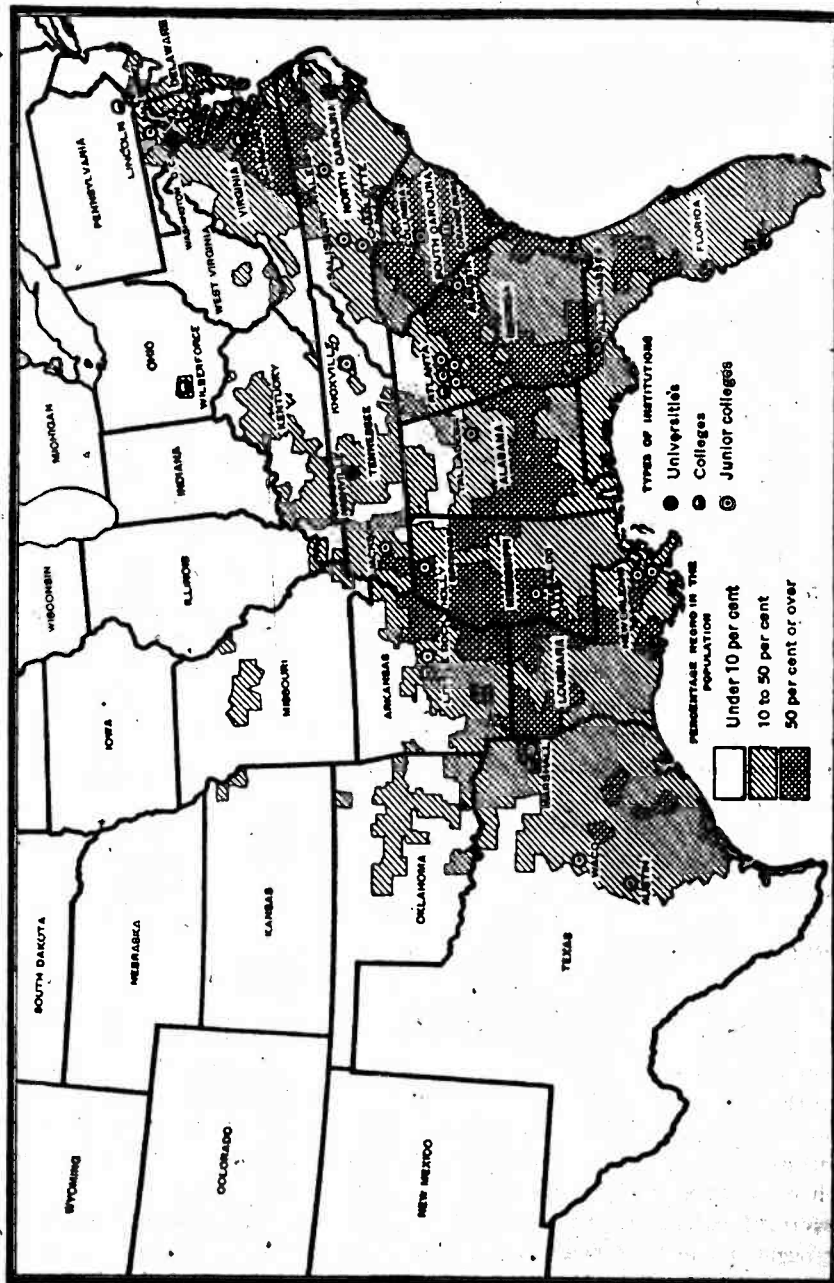
Any program for the development of colleges must undoubtedly consider denominational interests. The substantial contribution of the denominations to education constitutes a right to consideration in determining policies. It would be unfortunate, however, to encourage this denominational interest in a duplication that makes for a low-grade and ineffective education. Sound policy for the colored schools, as for the white institutions, demands that the ultimate principle underlying the distribution of educational institutions shall be the welfare of all the people rather than the advancement of any one denomination. So far as denominational interest is to be considered, the following table shows the large proportions which the Baptists and the various kinds of Methodists form of all church members in the colored churches:

PROPORTION OF BAPTISTS AND METHODISTS OF ALL DENOMINATIONS.

State.	Total Negro population.	Church communicants or members. ¹						
		All denomi- nations. °	Baptists.		Methodists.		Others.	
			Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
United States	9,827,763	3,685,097	2,354,789	63.9	1,182,131	32.1	148,177	4.0
The South	8,749,427	3,375,546	2,198,078	65.1	1,051,972	32.1	125,496	3.1
Alabama.....	908,282	397,178	275,358	69.3	111,571	28.1	10,249	2.6
Arkansas.....	442,891	146,319	94,464	64.6	47,449	32.4	4,406	3.0
Delaware.....	31,181	10,583	707	6.7	7,982	74.6	1,894	18.8
District of Columbia.....	94,446	46,249	30,392	65.7	8,813	19.1	7,044	15.2
Florida.....	308,669	105,678	54,109	51.2	47,201	44.7	4,368	4.1
Georgia.....	1,176,987	507,005	342,154	67.5	158,102	31.2	6,749	1.3
Kentucky.....	261,656	116,918	77,487	66.3	31,154	26.6	8,277	7.1
Louisiana.....	713,874	185,918	134,103	72.2	41,748	22.5	10,007	5.4
Maryland.....	232,250	71,797	19,193	26.7	46,338	64.5	6,266	1.9
Mississippi.....	1,009,487	358,708	243,603	67.9	110,465	30.8	4,604	1.3
North Carolina.....	697,843	283,707	165,503	58.3	96,465	34.0	21,739	7.7
Oklahoma.....	137,612	29,115	17,102	58.7	10,841	37.2	1,172	4.0
South Carolina.....	835,843	394,149	219,841	55.8	162,143	41.1	12,165	3.1
Tennessee.....	473,088	172,867	97,003	56.1	64,112	37.1	11,752	6.8
Texas.....	690,049	227,032	146,158	64.4	72,848	32.1	8,026	3.5
Virginia.....	671,096	307,374	270,219	87.9	30,492	9.9	6,663	2.2
West Virginia.....	64,173	14,949	10,622	71.1	4,248	28.4	79	.5

¹ 1910 census.² United States census of religious denominations, 1904.

It is a remarkable testimony to the altruistic interest of the denominations with a small colored membership that they have contributed so liberally to the education of the Negro race. Such a spirit should, so far as possible, be represented in any plans for college work. A most desirable form of cooperation in the encouragement of college education would be the appointment of a committee, representing the various denominations, to consider the wise distribution of colleges. Such a committee would require a broad vision of the needs of the colored people. Its interpretation of these needs should be made in the light of the fundamental trends in educational policy and with real regard for the interest of the students.



MAP 3.—PROPOSED PLAN OF DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS FOR NEGROES. (FOR DISCUSSION SEE P. 64).

For the guidance of such a committee it has been thought wise to suggest in a general way the geographical distribution of institutions that should be helped to maintain the various grades of college work. In determining the position of each institution due consideration has been given to its present facilities and support, the Negro population in its territory, the number of secondary schools supplying pupils, and the denominational demand for educational recognition. Map 3 shows the suggested distribution of three types of colored institutions on the basis of ability to do various grades of college work.

The suggestion offered by the map is that all agencies should cooperate in the development of two institutions of university grade. There is a striking unanimity in the conviction that Howard University at Washington, D. C., and Fisk University at Nashville, Tenn., are the two institutions which have the qualifications for further development as universities. Howard University is already of university proportions. In plant and support it surpasses all other institutions of college grade. Its location at the national capital and its close relation to the national government make possible the use of extensive government resources to illustrate and to extend class instruction. The location, ideals, and facilities of Fisk University also make possible its development as a university. The strategic character of the location is in its proximity to all the so-called "black belts" of Negroes and in the progressive educational ideals of the large white institutions of Nashville with which Fisk maintains friendly relations. Such advantages are most vital not only to the development of a sympathetic appreciation of the problems of the masses of the colored people in the South, but also to the formation of a cooperative relationship with the progressive southern people in the improvement of the condition of the colored race.

The second group of institutions indicated on the map comprise those whose facilities and location are favorable to their maintenance as first-class colleges. The suggestion of the map for this group is that one college shall be located at Richmond, Va.; one at Atlanta, Ga.; and one at Marshall, Tex. There is comparatively little room for a difference of opinion as to the desirability of a strong college at each of these places. Virginia Union University and Hartshorn College in Virginia are already maintaining high standards of scholarship. With the increase in teaching force and facilities and with better adaptation of their courses to progressive ideas in education, these two institutions could care for the college students of their section. The multiplicity of college departments in Atlanta, Ga., has already been described. This unfortunate condition should be remedied by cooperation among the five institutions in the effort to develop one real college. A suggestion for the method of this cooperation may be found in the Toronto University plan. This plan provides for a federation of several institutions in offering college work. While there are many difficulties in the way of such federation of the Atlanta institutions, it is perfectly feasible to find several points at which cooperation could begin. Three of the institutions have already engaged in some form of exchanges. In Marshall, Tex., there are two institutions of good standing. It ought not to be difficult to work out a cooperation of activities of these two schools that would result in first-class instruction of college grade and in the financial support which such work would merit.



A. THE UNIVERSITY LABORATORY.



B. CLINICAL TRAINING.

In view of the admission of colored students to the colleges of the Northern States, the problem of the colored colleges in these States has not seemed to demand the same consideration as those of the South. Lincoln University near Philadelphia and Wilberforce University in southwestern Ohio have facilities for college work. Their students are drawn from many States. Lincoln University has considerable endowment and a scholarly faculty. Wilberforce University is administered in three divisions. The "State department" maintained by the State is well managed. The other divisions are maintained by the African Methodist Episcopal Church and their administration is hampered by church politics.

The third group of schools shown on the map comprises those that should be developed into junior colleges or institutions doing two years of college work. A number of them are already offering courses of this grade, but all of them are in need of more equipment and larger income. These institutions should make generous provision for teacher-training courses both in their secondary and college classes. They should also plan their courses so that all their pupils shall acquire a correct and sympathetic appreciation of rural and industrial conditions of the Negro race. The following facts and comments on each State are offered for the assistance of educational boards and institutional trustees who desire to give further consideration to the college possibilities for Negroes. The arrangement of the States is geographical so that the facts for adjoining states may be together.

Maryland and Delaware.—The combined Negro population of these States in 1910 was 263,431; the number of secondary pupils is approximately 1,100; the Methodists form about 70 per cent of the total church membership. Morgan College owned by the Methodist Church is the only institution with any possibility of college classes in these States. It enrolls 128 pupils above the elementary grades, of whom less than 40 are in college classes. Of the pupils reporting home address, 51 were from Baltimore, 46 from other parts of Maryland, and 32 from other States. These facts indicate the wisdom of developing this institution as a junior college emphasizing teacher-training for the States of Maryland and Delaware. Its close proximity to Howard University, Virginia Union and Lincoln University near Philadelphia preclude work above that of the junior college for some time to come.

Virginia.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 671,096; the number of secondary pupils was 2,683; the Baptists form 88 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists 10 per cent. Virginia Union University for young men and Hartshorn College for young women are the only institutions with possibilities for college classes in Virginia. Virginia Union enrolls 220 students above elementary grade, of whom 51 are in college and 24 in ministerial classes. Of the pupils reporting home address, 46 are from Richmond, 125 from other parts of Virginia and 76 from other States. The facilities and location of this institution indicate the desirability of maintaining the full college course which shall include real emphasis on teacher-training.

North Carolina.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 697,843; the number of secondary pupils was 1,385; the Baptists form about 60 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 35 per cent. Shaw University, Livingstone College, and Biddle University have facilities for work of junior college grade. These three institutions enroll 485 pupils above the elementary grades, of whom 63 are in college

classes and about 50 are studying theological or medical subjects. Of the pupils reporting home address 128 are from the towns in which the schools are located, 310 from other parts of North Carolina and 178 from other States.

South Carolina.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 835,843; the number of secondary pupils was 1,468; the Baptists form about 56 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 40 per cent. Benedict and Claflin colleges have facilities to offer work of junior college grade. These two institutions enroll 470 pupils above elementary grades of whom 71 are in college classes. Of those reporting home address 79 were from the towns in which the schools are located, 249 from other parts of the State, and 41 from other States.

Georgia.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 1,176,987; the number of secondary pupils was 2,278; the Baptists form about 67 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 31 per cent. There are five large institutions in the city of Atlanta and Paine College in Augusta which have facilities to offer work of junior college grade. In view of the geographical importance of the city of Atlanta and the extensive facilities concentrated there, it seems desirable that the cooperation described in discussing the map should be effected. These institutions enroll 1,080 pupils above the elementary grades, of whom 149 are in college classes and 80 in theological classes. Of the pupils reporting home address, 565 live in the towns in which the schools are located, 441 are from other parts of the State, and 221 from other States.

Florida.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 308,669; the number of secondary pupils was 492; the Baptists form about 51 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 45 per cent. The Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes is the only institution which has facilities to offer instruction of junior college grade. As the main purpose of the institution is to teach agriculture and trades, only a limited number of college subjects can be taught. The enrollment above elementary grades, is 160, of whom 12 are studying college subjects. Of those reporting home address, 8 are from Tallahassee, 140 from other parts of Florida, and 12 from other States.

Alabama.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 908,282; the number of secondary pupils was 1,998; the Baptists form about 69 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 28 per cent. Talladega College is the only institution with facilities for work of junior college grade. The enrollment above the elementary grades is 179, of whom 45 are in college and 10 in theological classes. Of those reporting home address, 36 are from Talladega, 86 from other parts of the State, and 57 from other States.

Mississippi.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 1,009,487; the number of secondary pupils was 934; the Baptists form about 68 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 30 per cent. Tougaloo College and Rust College are the only institutions with facilities to offer work of junior college grade. The enrollment of these schools above the elementary grades is 237, of whom 28 are in college classes. Of those reporting home address, 34 are from the places in which the schools are located, 154 are from other parts of the State, and 30 from other States.

Louisiana.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 713,874; the number of secondary pupils was 687; the Baptists form about 72 per cent of the total church

membership and the Methodists about 22 per cent. Straight College and New Orleans College are the only institutions able to offer work of junior college grade. Leland University is temporarily closed, but will soon be opened in another part of the State. The enrollment of these two schools above the elementary grades is 324, of whom 20 are in college classes. Of the pupils reporting home address, 215 are from New Orleans, 95 from other parts of the State, and 38 from other States. It seems very desirable that New Orleans College should be moved out of the city of New Orleans to some other part of Louisiana.

Texas.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 690,049; the number of secondary pupils was 2,155; the Baptists form about 64 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 32 per cent. There are now two schools of junior college grade at Marshall, two at Austin, and one at Waco. The combined attendance of these schools above the elementary grades is 674, of whom 129 are in college classes. Of those reporting home address, 131 are from the towns in which the schools are located, 442 from other parts of the State, and 109 from other States. In view of the number of secondary pupils in Texas, it seems desirable that there should be one institution of college grade in that State. As Marshall is near the center of the colored population of the State and the work of the two institutions at that place is fairly well developed, sound policy requires that these two institutions cooperate to develop one first-class college.

Arkansas.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 442,891; the number of secondary pupils was about 825; the Baptists form about 65 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 33 per cent. Arkansas Baptist College and Philander Smith College have facilities to offer work of junior college grade. The enrollment of these two institutions above the elementary grades is 303, of whom 52 are studying college subjects. Of those reporting home address, 80 are from Little Rock, 186 from other parts of the State, and 37 from other States. In view of the proximity of colored pupils of this State to the college facilities at Marshall, Tex., and in view of the limited facilities of Arkansas Baptist and Philander Smith Colleges, it seems clear that these two institutions should not try to do more than junior college work, with large emphasis on teacher training and preparation for rural life.

Tennessee.—The Negro population of this State in 1910 was 473,088; the number of secondary pupils was about 1,764; the Baptists form about 56 per cent of the total church membership and the Methodists about 37 per cent. The possibilities of Fisk University have been fully discussed in connection with the map. Knoxville College has facilities for junior college work, and Lane College is endeavoring to reach the same standard. The enrollment of the last two institutions above the elementary grades is 219, of whom 40 are in college classes. Of those reporting home address, 48 are from the cities in which the schools are located, 65 are from other parts of Tennessee, and 176 are from other States. The large out-of-State attendance is due to the wide influence of Knoxville College through the United Presbyterian schools.

PROFESSIONAL COURSES.

The standards of professional training are so involved with the development of colleges that for some time to come the professional training of colored people must be carried on largely in connection with college and secondary work. The scarcity of good

teachers, the great need for increased library and laboratory facilities, and the small enrollments in all institutions of higher learning for colored people, render the chances of the development of strong professional schools better where they are affiliated with schools of collegiate or university grade.

At present fewer than 10 institutions for colored people offer professional courses with teaching force and equipment separate from their academic departments. The majority of these are affiliated with colleges. Howard University has medical, law, and theological departments with considerable equipment and full quotas of students in each department. Meharry Medical College has a large student body and a valuable plant. The theological faculty of Lincoln University is composed of well-educated men and the number of students is fair. Gammon Theological Seminary, at Clark University, is a well-endowed institution owned by the Methodist Episcopal denomination. The teaching force and equipment are adequate, but the number of students is not large. Bishop Payne Divinity School of the Protestant Episcopal denomination has a scholarly faculty, but a small number of students. Tuskegee Institute maintains a department for the instruction of rural ministers. The instruction is effective and practical. The attendance is good, but the preparation of the pupils is meager. Talladega College provides a separate building for the Theological Seminary, and its teaching force is separate, but the number of students is small. Payne Theological Seminary, of Wilberforce University, is incorporated independently and its work is done by its own teachers and in its own building. The management is not effective and the number of students is small. While Virginia Union University and Morehouse College do not have separate plants for their theological departments, the instruction is above the ordinary and the number of students is sufficient to make the work worth while. Shaw University maintains a preparatory medical course and offers instruction to ministerial students. The attendance in both courses is small. Theological teachers are employed at Livingstone College, Biddle University, Paine College, and Stillman Seminary.

It will be observed from the foregoing statement that a large majority of the professional departments are devoted to the training of ministers. Although there are openings for Negro lawyers, they are mostly in the North, and for the present the law school at Howard University is sufficient to supply this field. The number of colored physicians, according to the United States Census of 1910, was 3,077; colored dentists were 478 in number. Each group is increasing rapidly. The following table gives the number of medical students in the different colleges at the time of this study:

	Total.	Med- ical.	Den- tal.	Phar- macu- tical.
All schools.....	878	431	287	160
Howard University.....	288	100	116	72
Meharry Medical College.....	482	291	137	54
Shaw University.....	22	9	13
Northern colleges.....	86	31	34	21

So long as the medical facilities of Howard University and Meharry Medical College are not developed to their greatest possibilities, sound policy demands that these institutions shall be properly financed before other medical schools are developed. It is undoubtedly true, however, that the health needs of the ten million Negroes in the United States

require a larger medical force than these two institutions can educate. In the meantime, the additional physicians can probably be educated in the medical schools of the North. According to recent statistics of Northern institutions, there are 86 colored students in their medical, dental, and pharmaceutical departments.

The following table shows the provision for theological training for colored students

Theological schools.	Teachers.	Students.
Gammon Theological Seminary	6	78
Tuskegee Institute	3	77
Howard University	4	73
Lincoln University	6	54
Wilberforce University	4	30
Virginia Union University	6	24
Stillman Institute	2	21
Morehouse College	2	18
Bishop Payne Divinity School	4	15
Livingstone College	3	14
Talladega College	2	10
Shaw University	2	10
Paine College	2	9
Biddle University	2	8
Total	43	441

According to the United States Census there were 17,495 Negro ministers in 1910. While there are many Negro ministers of high character and large vision even among those who have but a limited knowledge of books, it is well known that the qualifications of a large number of them are very unsatisfactory. The Negroes are relatively more dependent on their churches than the white people. The Negro minister has been the leader not only in religious affairs but in economic and social activities. Some of the most interesting and helpful personalities of the colored people have been unlettered preachers who acquired their ideas of life from the cultured white people with whom they lived as slaves. Of such was the late Bishop Grant of the African Methodist Church, who delighted to tell of his boyhood days in his master's home. The places of these leaders are gradually being filled by young colored men who have received their standards from a group of Northern teachers of refinement and sterling character. Unfortunately colored ministers of this type are not yet numerous. The need for a better ministry is strikingly stated in the following words by a colored woman who is prominent in the affairs of colored Baptists:

In great cities like Pittsburgh, Chicago, New York, Washington, and Philadelphia are to be found scores of rooms, not large enough to accommodate over 30 or 40 people and with prospects of not having half that number at any service; you will find frosted window panes and signs on the doors, bearing some pretentious name suitable only for churches of large congregations and great prospect of growth. Often a front room of a ramshackle residence is turned into the "First Mt. Zion," or "Tabernacle Baptist Church," or "Calvary Baptist Church." * * *

The home of the ignorant preacher is not an example for a backward people, and the influence of the churches of dissension and strife is positively demoralizing. This is one of the reasons why we have such an alarmingly small enrollment of young men in our theological schools. The intelligent young Negro is simply disgusted and looks with contempt, rather than favor or respect, upon a calling so degraded by the willful acts of its representatives. The pulpit should be graced by clean men, and not until such a blessing comes to us will we come into our own as a race group, morally and spiritually. The leaders in

the pulpit must be strong enough to be absolutely impartial and just in dealing with flagrant sins. They must know books and they must know people. They must be imbued with the spirit and possess an abundance of business sense and tact and must be men of vision and sympathy. They must be living examples of industry, soberness, cleanliness, and gentility.

No need for the regeneration of the masses is more urgent than a ministry of this type, and our schools and homes are to give us these men. Our chief duty now is to awaken the home and school up to our pressing and distressing need and make both institutions realize how utterly impossible it is for us to advance without this definite and valuable contribution.

Conditions call for vigorous action on the part of the colored people and their friends. The present attendance of fewer than 500 students in the religious training departments of the colored schools is not sufficient. The number of schools offering religious training should be increased. This will not be done if the increase is to be limited to the institutions of college grade. Some schools of secondary grade should be enlisted in the work of preparing ministers. Even more important than the increase in the output is the adaptation of the course of study to fit the ministers to their tasks. The first requisite of these schools should be a plan of work that develops character. The most effective way to realize this is to insist on the formation of habits of order and punctuality and industry. Next to a thorough knowledge of the English Bible should be a knowledge of the laws of health. For the rural minister there should be an effective course in rural economics and a practical knowledge of gardening. For the urban minister there should be a course in the economics of industry and in neighborhood work for health and for wholesome recreation.

V. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

The development of the Negro race in the United States depends more directly on the elementary school teachers than on any other group. The colored physicians and the colored ministers are rendering a valuable service, but the former are insufficient in numbers and the latter in education to rival the influence of the teachers. The public-school teachers are the agents of the government and sooner or later will receive the adequate support of the States in their important work. With the awakening of public consciousness to a sense of responsibility for colored teachers, their contribution to the welfare of the Negro race and the South will become a most valuable asset of that section.

With all the possibilities of the colored teachers for the improvement of health conditions and for the development of the economic resources of the Southern States, teachers' salaries are pitifully meager and public facilities for teacher-training are negligible. The salaries of white teachers are not adequate, but the colored teachers receive only one-half to two-thirds of the monthly pay of the white teachers. The seriousness of the situation is accurately portrayed in the following passage from an address by one of the educational authorities of the South:

The meager salaries mean that the white and colored teachers of 80 out of every 100 of the children must give most of their time and attention to other means of making a living and not to training the children. It is well known that the county jailer is usually paid about \$150 a year for the board, clothing, and other attention he gives to those confined in our jails. A teacher's expenses can hardly be less and enable him to be fed and clothed. But \$150 is more than the average annual salary of many of the country teachers of the South. Every intelligent, able-bodied man can earn and does earn more annually than the wages paid country teachers in any Southern State.

Of course, these salary figures can give only a glimpse at the dearth of efficiency which must necessarily characterize the work of these teachers who are paid, if board and expenses are deducted, less than the commonest day laborers.

In view of the small remuneration and the lack of training facilities, it is little wonder that the majority of the public-school teachers are very poorly prepared. In Georgia and Alabama, for example, 70 per cent of the colored teachers have temporary or emergency certificates representing a schooling of less than eight elementary grades.

So far as the teachers are trained, they come largely from the private institutions. The work of the graduates of these schools has been a vital part of educational effort in behalf of the Negro. The institutions have not only been better equipped than the public schools, but they have been taught by white teachers whose qualifications included real education and a devotion to such essential elements of character as thoroughness, promptness, thrift, industry, and morality. The work of these white teachers has received strong praise from some of the most thoughtful southern educa-

tors. The following quotation from the 1907-8 report of Supt. Joyner of North Carolina is an illustration of this attitude:

In 1881 and 1882 I was county superintendent of the Wake County schools, including the Raleigh schools. I examined all public-school teachers, and at least 75 per cent of the colored teachers stood better examinations than they have this year in the colored normal schools. Why does it appear that the Negro teachers have made so little progress in these 25 years? I think the reason is that then most of the colored teachers had been educated in Shaw University and St. Augustine Normal School, and these schools were then taught mostly by well-qualified white northern teachers. The principal of the best colored graded school we had in Raleigh was a highly educated white northern woman. I am informed that all the teachers of the public schools in Charleston, S. C., are white. The Charleston public schools are considered among the best in the South. I am not advocating this policy, but it is a question that is worthy of serious consideration. A great deal of the objection to Negro education arises, I believe, from its defectiveness. All the teachers now employed in these normal schools are graduates of leading colleges, and it is hoped by an extension of the course of study and the efficient instruction required that the pupils will go out far better trained and prepared for teaching the public schools than in the past. The industrial training is fitting the girls for better housekeepers and the boys for more careful and intelligent farming and trucking.

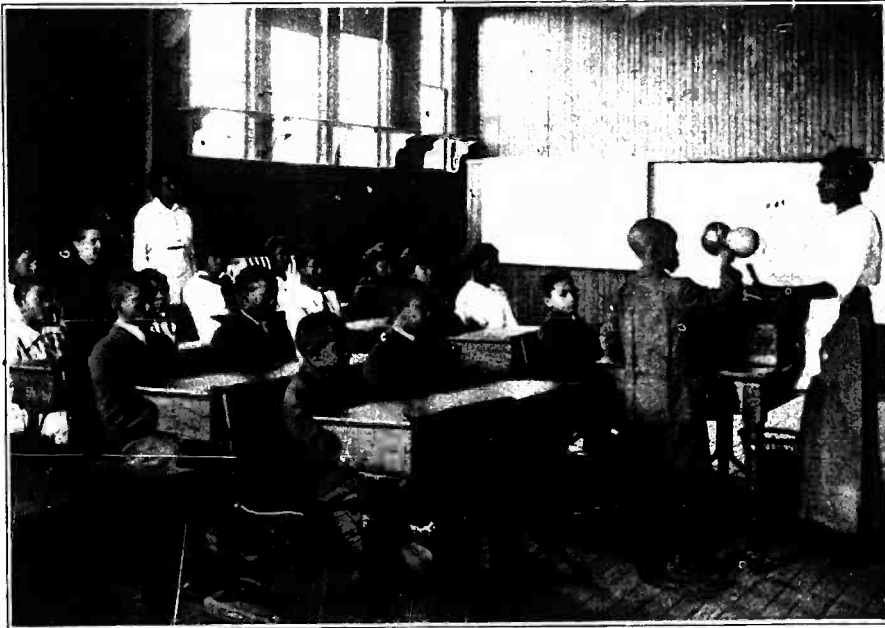
In view of the tendency to misunderstanding between the North and the South with regard to the education of the Negro, Supt. Joyner's point of view is significant. There is no doubt that the northern teachers are endeavoring more and more to develop a basis of cooperation with the public authorities and also that the public authorities are appreciating the northern teachers for the thoroughness of their educational work and their emphasis on character development.

A number of movements have been initiated within the past 10 years that promise an improvement in the teaching methods and teaching force of the public school. Among these are the efforts of the State supervisors of Negro schools, now operating in 10 States; the organization of the county training schools; and the supervising of rural schools by the Jeanes Fund industrial teachers. The following extract from a circular letter sent out by a State superintendent to the county and city superintendents indicates the spirit of the movements mentioned above:

The matter of selecting good teachers for your white schools, while the demand is still greater than the supply, is no doubt much easier than it was 5 or 10 years ago. This is perhaps true by reason of the increasing usefulness of our growing public high schools, the greater efforts made by the normal schools, the training schools, the university, the colleges, and summer schools of real purpose.

When you come to the selection of teachers for your Negro schools, the outlook is not so encouraging. Still the situation is not entirely hopeless. Many of the teachers now at work in the Negro schools are not at all competent. Consequently the money spent on these schools is spent to small purpose, in some cases almost wasted. The result, on the one hand, is very little real service to the Negro, and on the other, giving the white man who has not really considered the matter further grounds upon which to complain of such expenditure of the public funds.

You will, therefore, let me urge you not to be content to fill your Negro schools with incompetent teachers merely because they are near at hand and easy to get. It is as much your duty and mine to see to it that good, well qualified teachers are put into the Negro schools as it is to supply the right kind of teachers for our own white schools. Because the management of these schools is almost entirely in our control, because we are in a way guardians for the Negro children, it seems to me we should exercise very great care in selecting teachers for them. Teachers are in a very real sense the leaders of the race, and how necessary it is that these leaders shall possess good character, correct purposes, a real desire to help the people, and the best training they can secure to aid them in teaching the ordinary school subjects. Also they should be qualified to teach some industrial subjects. I hope you will help to raise the standard of Negro teachers in your county and in the State.



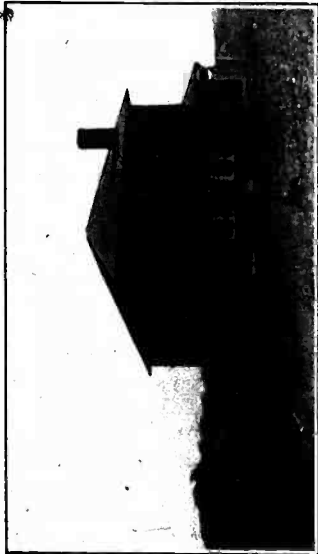
A. PRACTICE TEACHING.

Prospective teachers "Learn to do by doing."



B. DARNING AND MENDING AT HAMPTON INSTITUTE.

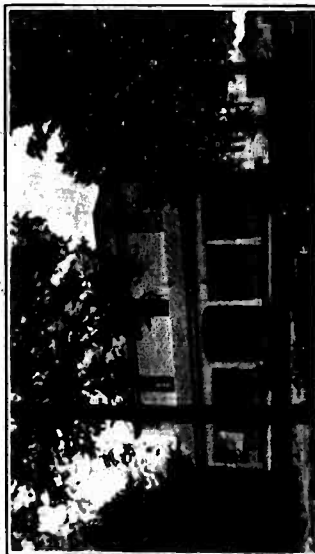
Young women with this training will be able to solve the problem of teaching the important everyday things.



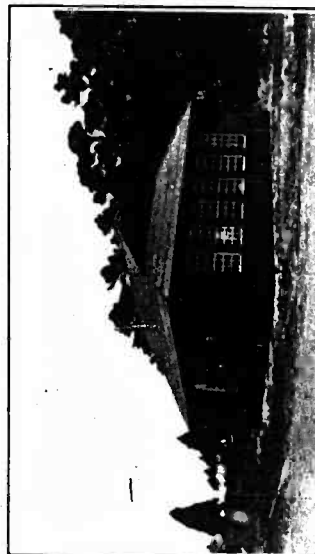
Main building, containing workshop and domestic science room.
Lowndes County, Ala.



View showing domestic science room.



Coosa County Training School, Alabama.



Typical training school workshop, containing two rooms, one for blacksmithing and the other for carpentry.

COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOL VIEWS.

THE WORK OF THE COLORED TEACHERS.

As teachers of nearly 2,000,000 children, the teachers in colored schools have a remarkable opportunity to influence the 10,000,000 Negroes in the United States. The improvement of these masses is of vital importance not only to the Southern States; in which the majority of them are living, but also to the whole country. While the race is making commendable progress, the masses are still in dire need of every kind of education. In the chapter on public schools the appeal for increased facilities was based on the amount of illiteracy and the high death rate of the race. The discussion of rural education shows both the hopeful progress and the great need of more intelligence in farming sections. The presentation of industrial education shows the economic weakness of the race and the educational possibilities of hand training. The chapters on secondary and college education emphasize the need of a broad knowledge of human development and the elements essential to the welfare and progress of the race. In brief, the whole report serves as a background for a proper appreciation of the work of the teacher and, most of all, the work of teachers in elementary schools.

The statistics of the United States Census and the reports of the State superintendents indicate that the number of colored teachers is about 30,000. Assuming that every community will provide teachers for the children between 6 and 14 years of age, each of the 30,000 teachers is responsible for about 65 children. Inadequate as this supply of teachers evidently is, and poorly prepared as the teachers are known to be, they occupy the most strategic position of all the social groups in any effort to improve the masses of the Negroes. The group next in number are the 18,000 ministers, whose work is hampered both by the poverty of the churches and the limited education of a large majority of the ministers. The physicians are well-trained men who are rendering a splendid service, but their number, according to United States Census, is only 3,000.

No teachers in the country have a more important or difficult work than the colored teachers. They have the opportunity to be not only the teachers of youth; they can also become the centers of community life. They can be not only the guides and counsellors of the colored people; they can also become their best representatives in all dealings with the white people. In the upward struggles of a race only 50 years removed from slavery, there is need of teachers with a broad conception of educational aims. The teaching of book knowledge is only a small part of the task. There must be the development of such habits as industry, thrift, perseverance, and the common virtues so essential to successful living.

The character of the work of the Negro teacher was well described by Gen. Armstrong in his early reports on Hampton Institute. Some of his striking sayings are here noted:

Schools are not for brain alone but for the whole man. The teachers should be not mere pedagogues but citizens.

The personal force of the teacher is the main thing. Outfit and apparatus, about which so much fuss is made, are secondary.

To me the end of education for the classroom is more and more clear. It should be straight thinking. Instruction in books is not all of it.

General deportment, habits of living and of labor, right ideas of life and duty, are taught [at Hampton] in order that graduates may be qualified to teach others these important lessons of life.

PRESENT FACILITIES.

Some measure of the present facilities for training colored teachers may be seen in the teachers' certificates granted by the States. Unfortunately these figures are not sufficiently uniform to make exact comparisons. The experience of Virginia in the certification of colored teachers is typical of the more progressive Southern States. The following statement, prepared by Arthur D. Wright, State school inspector, is significant in a number of respects:

The real solution of the educational problems of any people rests largely with the individual teachers, and to expect satisfactory results from the efforts of untrained, poorly trained, or inadequately trained teachers is worse than useless. With a teaching force of approximately 2,500 Negro teachers, an annual supply of at least 500 new teachers each year is needed in order to keep the ranks filled, and if we are to be able to do any real selection in choosing our teaching force, an annual supply of more than 500 new teachers is necessary. During the year 1915, to meet the demands of the session 1915-16, a total of 854 Negro teachers were licensed. It may be conservatively estimated that of this number at least 400 had held certificates of some sort and taught school the previous year, and certainly another hundred who were licensed either did not teach at all or taught outside of Virginia. Thus we would have a net addition to our Negro teaching force of not over 354 new teachers to fill a demand for not less than 500. The inevitable result is the annual issuance of many "emergency" certificates.

Of the 854 teachers licensed, 377 were admitted on diplomas from recognized institutions and 477 passed examinations given by the State. The 477 who passed constituted only 36 per cent of the total who took the examination. Only 28 received first-grade certificates, 169 were second grade, and 280 were third grade. The appalling number of failures and the low grade of the majority of the certificates can mean but one thing—the inadequacy of the preparation of the applicants. This inadequacy of preparation is fundamental, reaching down into the elementary schools. How, then, with inadequate elementary schools, or at least schools taught by inadequately prepared teachers, can we hope to improve our class of teachers? A careful survey of the situation points to but two sources from which relief may be expected—a greater number of publicly supported agencies for teacher training and a closer cooperation between the public-school authorities and the existing private secondary schools for Negroes.

If Virginia, with 2,500 teachers, requires 500 new teachers, or 20 per cent of the total, every year, it may be safely estimated that the Southern States, with over 30,000 teachers, will require an equal proportion, or about 6,000 new teachers. So far as the conditions in Alabama and Georgia are typical, there is furthermore a need for the speedy removal or rapid improvement of the 70 per cent whose education is less than eight elementary grades. The supply to meet this demand is even less satisfactory in most of the States than it is in Virginia. As one measure of this supply a count has been made of the pupils in the graduating classes in all the schools offering any teacher-training subjects. This output annually is approximately 2,500, a number utterly inadequate to meet the demand for 6,000 new teachers.

The supply of teachers now depends almost entirely upon the secondary schools, most of which are private institutions. State normal schools are maintained only in Virginia, North Carolina, Alabama, and Maryland. The State agricultural and mechanical schools, largely supported by the Federal Government, offer some teacher-training courses, but in most cases these courses are not adequate. City normal schools are maintained in Louisville, Ky., Washington, D. C., and Baltimore, Md. Richmond, Va., St. Louis, Mo., and Little Rock, Ark., have teacher-training courses in the high schools.

The majority of the trained colored teachers are from private schools. About 15 of these institutions have well-organized courses with considerable provision for obser-

vation and practice teaching. At least 65 others offer courses with one year of pedagogy and methods, including some time in observation and practice. About 45 other schools include one or two teacher-training subjects in their academic course.

The schools with possibilities of development as teacher-training institutions fall into four groups: (1) The 216 private institutions offering secondary courses, 64 public high schools, and 3 city normal schools; (2) the 44 county training schools; (3) Hampton, Tuskegee, and the 28 State schools; (4) the college departments of the 32 institutions attempting to do work above secondary grade. While no system prevails in the teacher-training work of a majority of these schools, and many do not offer any teacher training whatever, their equipment and aims enable them to train a certain type of teachers. Their graduates, whether they have received professional training or not, are filling public-school positions. The first two groups are fitted to train teachers for the elementary schools; the others should endeavor to provide such advanced work as is required to equip teachers of high-school subjects.

Through the cooperation of the Slater Fund and the General Education Board with the State departments of education, 44 counties maintained county training schools in 1917 and several other counties were building or planning such schools. These schools are designed to supplement the elementary-school facilities of the county and to prepare pupils for teaching in rural schools. As yet, however, their work is almost entirely of elementary grade. They are county centers at which some industrial training and advanced elementary work is provided.

The work of Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes in teacher training is unique. Their aim has been the preparation of teachers and supervisors for elementary schools, for agriculture, and for industries. They stress the training of character and the development of community interest, so essential to the improvement of the masses of the colored people. Though the great emphasis of these institutions is very properly on the elementary schools, their influence would be greatly increased by arrangements whereby they would train teachers for secondary schools. Some of the smaller industrial schools are also unique in the effective adaptation of their activities to the pupils and to the community. Notable examples are the schools at Calhoun, Ala.; St. Helena Island, S. C.; and Fort Valley, Ga.

The 16 State agricultural and mechanical schools have unique possibilities in teacher training. The fact that they are publicly owned and controlled gives them an official status in the school system. Unfortunately, however, these institutions have not made adequate provision for teacher training. With their agricultural and mechanical equipment they should be able to render a valuable service not only to the elementary schools but also to the high schools.

There are three public normal schools in North Carolina and one each in Virginia, Alabama, and Maryland. As yet these institutions are elementary and secondary in grade. The teacher-training facilities are limited in all of them.

The 32 institutions offering more or less instruction of college grade are also able to provide teacher-training courses. Some of these institutions are sufficiently advanced to maintain teacher-training courses requiring high-school graduation for entrance. To this end it would be necessary for these institutions to modify their classical aim and to devote more time to advanced instruction in hygiene, history, civics, rural

economics, physical science, and teacher training. The time has not come, however, for even these schools to abandon the teacher-training courses in their high-school departments, for many of their pupils are to be found in positions as teachers and supervisors of elementary schools. Their efficiency and value to the public-school system would be increased if arrangements could be made whereby the practice teaching could be done in the local public schools and the teaching of elementary grades in the institution itself be abandoned.

Though the majority of the colleges have not realized this aim, some notable examples of advanced teacher-training work are to be found in Howard University, Atlanta University, Spellman Seminary, Fisk University, and Talladega College. Public-school positions all over the South are occupied by graduates of these schools who not only have a knowledge of the subjects which they are to teach but also an appreciation of the needs of their schools and pupils. The secondary departments of Claflin College, Bishop College, Benedict College, Tougaloo College, Straight College, Rust College, New Orleans College, and a number of other institutions provide good training for elementary teachers.

Through the cooperation of the State departments of instruction with the Jeanes Fund, the Slater Fund, and the General Education Board, a number of important efforts have recently been made to improve the condition of the colored teachers. Ten of the States have appointed State supervisors of Negro schools, who have initiated a number of important movements and aroused real interest in the welfare of the teachers in colored schools. Through the Jeanes Fund county supervisors were maintained in 163 counties in 1916. These workers have suggested many ways in which the teaching may be made more effective.

Many of the larger private schools are in a position to provide the equipment and teaching force necessary for good summer courses for teachers. State aid to these schools, even if it were merely given on a per capita basis for each public-school teacher attending, would prove a stimulus to the work. The Virginia plan of raising the grade of certificate held by a teacher upon completion of certain summer courses is also a useful incentive to attendance on summer schools. In fact, the State officials of Virginia consider that the great improvement that has recently taken place in their teaching force is due to the provision for summer instruction in the various larger schools of the State, together with the extended supervision which the teachers have received from the State department of public instruction and the Jeanes Fund county supervising industrial teachers. Large summer schools with terms of four or five weeks are held in Hampton, Tuskegee and several of the State schools. Some of the private schools also maintain summer schools. The practice of holding teachers' institutes, consisting of lectures for colored teachers during a period of a week or 10 days, varies in different States. In Kentucky each county with any considerable number of Negro teachers is required to hold a teachers' institute; if there is no considerable number of Negro teachers they attend the nearest colored institute. In some of the other States, notably Texas, from 10 to 20 union institutes are held at various centers. The teachers of several surrounding counties attend these institutes. In the black-belt States comparatively little is done for the improvement of colored teachers through summer schools and institutes. Alabama, however, is now making special efforts in this direction by means of summer normals and institute workers employed the year round.

MEANS AND METHODS IN TEACHER TRAINING.

The effective preparation of teachers includes all phases of education. The chapters on public, secondary, collegiate, industrial and rural education, are therefore, essential parts of this discussion of the "Means and methods of teacher training." While the preparation of teachers is thus comprehensive in its scope, the great demand is for elementary teachers who have a real appreciation of the fundamental needs of the masses. In view of this fact, it is important that institutions of all grades should be so organized as to contribute directly or indirectly to the efficiency of the elementary teacher.

The essential elements in the equipment of the elementary teachers are a thorough knowledge of the "three R's," an intelligent appreciation and knowledge of industrial, agricultural, and home activities, and sincere devotion to such fundamental virtues as health, thrift, perseverance, thoroughness, and morality in all relationships. Academic and professional knowledge and experience may be added to any extent, but these fundamental requisites must be the first consideration not only in the preparation of the elementary teachers but in the training of all persons responsible for the educational activities.

Any serious effort to improve the quality of teachers must provide for a substantial increase in the wages of the teachers. It has already been shown that the prevailing rate of compensation is less than a living wage. While many colored men and women of character and ability are now devoting themselves to the teaching profession without adequate pay, sound policy demands that their wages shall at least supply the necessities of life. Failure to maintain this minimum standard is bound to force the capable workers into other lines of work. Nor is it sufficient merely to provide a general increase in wages. The increases should be based on gradations of ability, character and experience. A wise arrangement of salaries according to the teaching certificates would serve as a strong incentive to worthy and capable teachers who are working for self-improvement.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN TEACHER TRAINING.

Every grade and type of school is necessary to the training of an adequate supply of effective colored teachers. As shown in the chapters on "Public school facilities" and "Secondary education," not only are the elementary and secondary schools insufficient in number, but they fail to adapt their activities to the needs of their pupils. In addition to a general increase of elementary schools and a systematic effort to relate their work to the life of the community, there is need for the improvement and changes indicated below.

County training schools.—There is no doubt that the majority of elementary teachers must be prepared in the locality in which they are to work. The amazing dearth of trained teachers necessitates a type of school that can be maintained by a comparatively small geographical unit. The organization of the "County training school" is a most promising movement to enable a community to improve its elementary teachers. While the schools of this type are as yet only elementary in grade, they are not only potentially teacher-training institutions, but they are effective in awakening local interest in the education of colored children. Their success hitherto is explained both by the

simplicity of their plant and by the sensible character of their school program. The following description of the progress of these schools in Virginia is typical of their success in other States:

During the last few years the problem of an adequate supply of trained teachers has brought into existence a small number of schools which have been denominated county training schools. These schools have been made possible through the assistance of the General Education Board and the John F. Slater Fund and up to the close of the session 1915-16 five such schools have been established in Virginia, one each in the counties of Albemarle, Caroline, Nottoway, Roanoke, and York. These schools have in most cases done work through the ninth grade, and in some cases through the tenth grade, including in the last two years some elementary teacher training. In addition much industrial work has been included in the curriculum, the aim being to make these schools articulate as nearly as possible with the life of the people in the rural communities and the type of work their graduates will be called upon to do.

The multiplication of these schools is most desirable. Under present economic conditions it may be necessary for two or three counties to combine in the support of one institution of this character. So far as possible, it is undoubtedly best to select existing schools for further development. There are in the South about 850 counties with a Negro population ranging from 10 to 90 per cent of the total population. It is probable that the aim should be to establish at least one county training school in nearly every one of these 850 counties.

Public secondary schools.—If public secondary schools were needed for no other purpose they would be needed to increase the supply of better trained elementary school teachers. The late Dr. J. L. M. Curry, who was among the foremost educators of the South, was always emphatic in his condemnation of a public policy that maintained elementary schools but failed to supply trained teachers to do the work. General improvement in the great mass of teachers must be realized through the multiplication of county training and secondary schools whose activities are adapted to prepare pupils to help their neighborhoods.

State agricultural and mechanical schools.—In each of the Southern States there is an agricultural and mechanical school maintained by State and Federal funds. Reference has already been made to the advantages these institutions derive from their status as public institutions. As the number of secondary schools in each State increases, these institutions will have the financial resources to provide teacher-training courses requiring graduation from high school for entrance. For the present, however, their work is necessarily of secondary grade. With the private agricultural and industrial schools, these State institutions have a special responsibility for the training of teachers of gardening, household arts and mechanical activities.

Private institutions.—However much the public facilities may be developed, the private institutions will be needed for some years to come. Plans should therefore be made to develop cooperation between public and private agencies. The State and county officers should encourage the private schools to plan their activities to train teachers and leaders for their communities. The private institutions should seek the advice of the public authorities and endeavor in every way to become a vital part of the school system. The State supervisors of colored schools have been remarkably successful in developing effective forms of cooperation of the type indicated. In Virginia,

for example, a conference of representatives from 38 of the secondary normal and collegiate institutions, called by the State school inspector, decided that—

Instead of each institution blindly going ahead and formulating a course of study intended to train teachers to some extent and then having this course refused recognition or given but partial recognition when presented to the State department of public instruction, a much better plan would be to have the State board of education authorize certain courses, the completion of which, under the inspection and approval of the department of public instruction, would entitle the graduates to certain certificates.

Accordingly, a committee was appointed, which met at the Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute, Petersburg, on March 17, 1916, and formulated the rough draft of several courses of study for which it was determined to ask official recognition from the State board of education. The work was put into the hands of a subcommittee of three for final revision and submission to the State board. In June the State board approved three courses designated as courses for normal industrial schools, high schools, and industrial (county) training schools, designed to meet the needs of the private secondary schools desiring recognition and as guides to the public schools doing secondary work. In describing this situation the State inspector says:

It is confidently believed that the majority of the private schools will shape their courses to meet the requirements of these courses of study and thus put themselves in line for recognition by the granting of State teachers' certificates to their graduates.

Summer schools and supervisors.—It is most important that every possible effort be made to improve the teachers already at work. The most successful agencies in this work are the summer schools and the State and county supervisors.

ELEMENTS IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

The three elements in the preparation of teachers are, first, sound habits of thought and action in the common tasks of the common day and some natural aptitude for teaching; second, knowledge of the subjects to be taught and skill in the activities related thereto; and, third, appreciation both of the pupil's mind and character and also of the community from which the pupil has come.

The details of the first two elements have been presented in the chapters discussing the various phases of education. There has also been considerable discussion of adaptation to the needs of the pupil and the community. It is now necessary only to indicate the relations of these elements to the various grades of schools.

Elementary grades.—The fundamental task is the training of elementary teachers. For this group the first requirement is a sympathetic appreciation of the masses of the people and a knowledge of the elementary subjects. Teachers of these grades should also have a practical knowledge of gardening, household arts, and simple woodwork. The minimum of teacher training for them should include some study of methods of teaching, school management, and educational psychology. Wherever possible there should also be opportunity for schoolroom observation and practice teaching. Schools of all grades from the elementary to the college should feel a definite responsibility for the teachers of the elementary grades.

Secondary schools.—All educational agencies should combine to encourage secondary schools to train teachers. Wherever possible preference should be given to the sub-

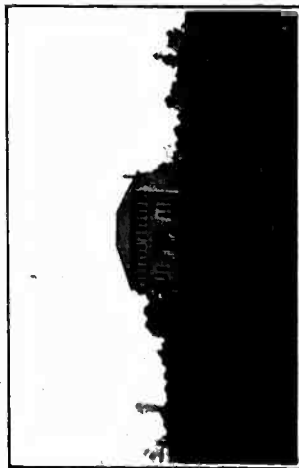
jects and activities that increase the efficiency of teachers. Above all, colleges should give credit to teacher-training subjects in admitting pupils to college. A number of the most important colleges and universities for white students are already giving such credit. The failure of the colored colleges to make this provision has caused a large number of secondary schools either to neglect the special phases of teacher training or to divide their energy in the effort to maintain both college preparatory and normal courses. As the teaching force and equipment of all the schools are not sufficient to maintain two courses, much waste and considerable poor teaching have resulted.

Teachers' colleges.—There is urgent need for trained secondary teachers to relieve the inbreeding of ideas caused by filling positions in high schools with high-school graduates. In view of the limited supply of colored pupils who are well enough prepared for advanced secondary courses, and the small number of schools able to give such courses, the teacher-training program should be so arranged as to meet this need in the best way under the existing circumstances. The institutions prepared to do "teachers' college" work are limited in number. Fisk, Atlanta, and Howard, at least, are prepared to do such work. The Talladega plan, offering teacher-training subjects as electives in the junior and senior college years, is probably not justified by the number of pupils who reach these classes. It would be better for the majority of institutions to face frankly the fact that if they are to supply high-school teachers with professional training they must do this in a two-year junior college course requiring high-school graduation for entrance.

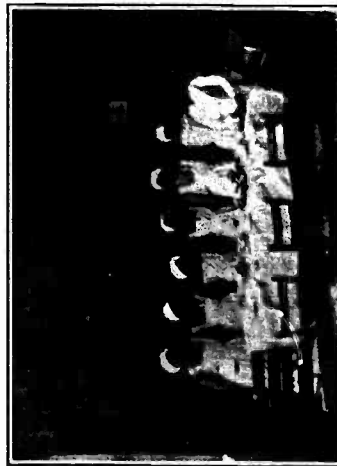
General considerations.—"Learning by doing" is as vital in the training of teachers as in the preparation of any other group of workers. Practice teaching under careful supervision is an essential part of a teacher's education. This practice should be done under conditions that are as real as the facilities will permit. Enough time should be devoted to the practice to enable the pupil-teacher to have some appreciation of the variety of teaching experiences. In a four-year course the minimum should be one-half of the last year.

In view of the importance of establishing the highest possible standards in the teaching profession, it is important that those who have charge of the training of teachers shall be men and women of strong character and unquestioned ability. No limitation of race or section should be observed in the selection of these workers.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.



The training school building with its 10 acres of land.



Members of the Homemakers' Club serving a meal.
COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOL, PICKENS COUNTY, ALA.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 14.



The domestic science equipment.



A class in sewing.

VI. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

The real meaning of industrial education has been largely misunderstood by the colored people and many of their friends. It is not strange that a race only recently freed from slavery, industrial and otherwise, should question industrial education, especially when it saw the people of the white race bending every nerve to give their sons and daughters "book learning." Fortunately, the white people both of the South and of the North are now realizing the importance of industrial education for their children, with the result that the industrial facilities for white pupils are increasing so rapidly as to surpass by far those for colored pupils. Nine States have already established State systems of industrial education, and a number of other States have provided funds for vocational schools, while practically every modern city school system recognizes industrial training as one of its primary aims.

The phrase "industrial education" as applied to colored schools is very misleading. While the effective industrial schools are making genuine efforts to develop industrial skill, their fundamental purpose is much broader than vocational efficiency or the resulting comfort and culture. The underlying principle of these schools is the adaptation of educational activities, whether industrial or literary, to the needs of the pupil and the community. Leaders in these schools believe that education should include not only the head but the hand and the heart. These broad purposes were strikingly expressed by Gen. Armstrong, the founder of Hampton Institute, in his school reports as early as 1870. The following quotations from these reports illustrate the principles which guided him in the organization of his work:

The past of our colored population has been such that an institution devoted especially to them must provide a training more than usually comprehensive, must include both sexes and a variety of occupation, must produce moral as well as mental strength, and while making its students first-rate mechanical laborers must also make them first-rate men and women.

The Negro is more successful in getting knowledge than in using it. To him, as to all, knowledge comes easily but wisdom slowly.

These people are constantly victimized through their ignorance of business methods, and are usually careless and inefficient in such matters. Every student ought to know how to make out a bill or a promissory note and how to give a proper receipt, and should be familiar with the ways of buying and selling land.

Didactic and dogmatic work has little to do with the formation of character, which is our point. That is done by making the school a little world in itself; mingling hard days' work in field or shop with social pleasures, making success depend on behavior rather than on study marks. School life should be like real life.

Real progress is not in increase of wealth or power, but is gained in wisdom, in self-control, in guiding principles, and in Christian ideas. That is the only true reconstruction. To that Hampton's work is devoted.

The education needed is one that touches upon the whole range of life, that aims at the formation of good habits and sound principles, that considers the details of each day; that enjoins in respect to diet, regularity, proper selection, and good cooking; in respect to habits, suitable clothing, exercise, cleanliness of persons and quarters, and ventilation, also industry and thrift; and in respect to all things, intelligent practice and self-restraint.

Subtract hard work from life, and in a few months it will have all gone to pieces. Labor, next to the grace of God in the heart, is the greatest promoter of morality, the greatest power for civilization.

In all men, education is conditioned not alone on an enlightened head and a changed heart, but very largely on a routine of industrious habits, which is to character what the foundation is to the pyramid. The summit should glow with a divine light, interfusing and qualifying the whole mass, but it should never be forgotten that it is only upon a foundation of regular daily activities that there can be any fine and permanent upbuilding. Morality and industry generally go together.

The plan of combining mental and physical labor is a priori, full of objections. The course of study does not run smoothly; there is action and reaction, depression and delight; but the reserve forces of character no longer lie dormant. They make the rough places smooth; the school becomes a drill ground for future work. It sends men and women rather than scholars into the world.

It is the wisdom of these words and the remarkable success with which they have been realized in Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes that inspired the following statement by Prof. Francis Greenwood Peabody concerning Gen. Armstrong:

Gen. Armstrong, in a degree hardly equaled in the history of education, had the gift of prophecy. He foresaw and foretold with extraordinary precision the tendencies and transitions which within the last 25 years have practically revolutionized the principles of education. The training of the hand and eye as well as of the mind—or rather, the training of the mind through observation and manual labor—the moral effect of technical skill, the conception of labor as a moral force, the test of education in efficiency, the subordination in industrial training of production to instruction, the advantages to both sexes of coeducation in elementary schools, and the vanity of education without discipline in thrift, self-help, love of work, and willingness to sacrifice, all these familiar maxims of modern vocational training are set forth with the assurance of a social prophet in these few pages of occasional utterances, in which the instinct of a creative genius anticipates the science of to-day.

Through Dr. H. B. Frissell, his successor as principal of Hampton Institute, and through the late Dr. Booker T. Washington, his pupil, Gen. Armstrong's idea of education for life has been worthily advocated and extended, until now his thoughts are the common property of all progressive leaders of education.

It is apparent that many of the principles outlined above are applicable to all types of educational effort. It is well known, too, that the literary institutions did stress thrift, cleanliness, honesty, perseverance, and the simple but fundamental virtues. The men and women of high character who went South to lift up the freedmen could not avoid radiating their personal influence upon their pupils. Under these early teachers the pupils received some of the best possible instruction in care of buildings and grounds, in the conduct of boarding departments, and in carrying on all the other common duties of the schools. While these influences have made valuable contributions to the character development of the colored people, they failed of their greatest possibilities because they were regarded only as accidental or incidental to the main purpose, which to the literary schools was the study of the printed page.

As a rule this incidental value was realized as long as the institution was under the management of white teachers whose home training had developed in them a fundamental interest in the simple home virtues. When, however, these schools have been turned over to colored teachers, in many instances the interest in the literary courses has been so strong as to cause neglect of the simple but essential elements of order, cleanliness, and thoroughness. Fortunately there is now a disposition among some of the literary institutions to recognize these incidental activities as educational and to give them a status equal to that of the book courses.

Industrial education in the comprehensive sense is the very essence of democracy in education. Civilized society has long been democratic in the advocacy of education for all the people, regardless of race, color, and previous condition. In curriculum and method, however, the schools of the land have continued to be both aristocratic and arbitrary. Subjects introduced in the middle ages to meet the needs of one or more classes of the people of that time have been retained for their cultural value. Democracy in the content of education demands that the curriculum shall impart culture through knowledge and practice related to the farm, the shop, the office, and, above all, the home.

IMPORTANCE OF THE NEGRO TO SOUTHERN INDUSTRY.

The South is rich in economic resources, but poor both in the quantity and quality of its labor supply. "What the South most needs," said a well-known writer of that section, "is not new discoveries, but the application of what is known. Man, not nature, is at fault." The industrial education of both the white and colored youth is undoubtedly the most important element in the economic development of that section.

The Southern people are just beginning to appreciate the remarkable economic possibilities of their States. The United States Geological Survey reports that one-fifth of all the mineral output of the country is from the Southern States. The Forest Service reports that the South, with a magnificent belt of pines stretching from Virginia to Texas, ranging in width from 150 to 200 miles, is the chief lumber-producing region of the country. In addition it is estimated that the waterfalls have a capacity of 10,000,000 horsepower, of which only a relatively small amount has been harnessed for factory purposes. The value of the present output of mineral and lumber resources is but a small part of the possible production. Even now it is but a fraction of the agricultural production of those States. Cotton alone has an annual valuation of fully three-quarters of a billion dollars.

An analysis of the population of the Southern States makes it certain that the hope of the South for an improved labor supply is not immigration, but the effective education of their white and colored youth. After all the years of tremendous immigration to America, the South had in 1910 only 726,171 persons of foreign birth. The proportion of the immigration stream going to the South has long been less than 5 per cent of the total number of immigrants. The inevitable conclusion is, therefore, that the two great sources of labor in the South are the more than 20,000,000 native white persons and 9,000,000 Negroes. Recent evidence indicates the possibility that the supply of Negro labor is threatened by the increasing tide to the North.

In view of all these facts, the following words written by a prominent North Carolinian are significant:

I believe that the Negro should be educated and that industrial education is what he most needs. But we must not overlook the fact that he has other shortcomings besides that of economic inefficiency. His present condition is not due to a low earning capacity alone, but also to low ideals of living. We must guard against any kind of one-sided development and bear in mind that the right ideal of Negro education is twofold: To increase the Negro's industrial efficiency, and at the same time and with the same speed raise his standard of living. The true type of industrial education not only makes the Negro a better workman, but also causes him to build a better home and live a worthier life.

IMPORTANCE OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION TO THE COLORED PEOPLE.

The moral and political condition of any people is closely related to their economic condition. Though the Negroes have made striking progress in the acquisition of property, they are still a poor people. They are as yet "hewers of wood and drawers of water." According to the United States Census, a larger percentage of colored women and children are breadwinners than of any other group. While this fact indicates that a commendable percentage of the race is gainfully employed, it suggests the necessity of elevating the economic status of the group so that the children may attend school and the women may have a better opportunity to care for the morals and hygiene of the home. The comparatively low economic status of the race is further shown in the following table by the large proportion of all Negro breadwinners who are laborers and the comparatively small numbers who are in the skilled and professional classes:

PRINCIPAL OCCUPATION OF NEGROES—1910.

Occupations of males.

Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.	Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.
Total breadwinners.....	3,178,554	100.0	Garden laborers.....	11,801	0.4
Farm laborers.....	981,922	30.9	Laborers, domestic.....	10,880	.3
Farmers.....	798,509	25.1	Blacksmiths.....	9,835
Laborers, building trades.....	166,374	5.2	Painters and glaziers.....	8,915
Laborers, sawmills.....	91,181	2.9	Messenger boys.....	8,261
Laborers, railroads.....	86,380	2.7	Coachmen and footmen.....	7,679
Porters, not in stores.....	51,471	1.6	Elevator tenders.....	6,276
Draymen and teamsters.....	50,689	1.6	Plasterers.....	6,175
Coal-mine operatives.....	39,530	1.2	Clerks, not in stores.....	6,077
Laborers, in stores.....	36,906	1.2	Firemen, locomotive.....	5,188
Waiters.....	35,664	1.1	Engineers, stationary.....	4,802
Laborers, road building.....	33,914	1.1	Brakemen, locomotive.....	4,710
Cooks.....	32,453	1.0	Chauffeurs.....	4,674
Deliverymen, stores.....	30,511	1.0	Tailors.....	4,652
Carpenters.....	30,404	1.0	Soldiers and sailors.....	3,734
Janitors and sextons.....	22,419	.7	Shoemakers.....	3,695
Barbers and hairdressers.....	19,446	.6	Restaurant keepers.....	3,635
Retail dealers.....	17,659	.6	Cleaners, clothing.....	3,385
Clergymen.....	17,427	.5	Builders.....	3,272
Longshoremen, stevedores.....	16,379	.5	Furnace and smelter men.....	3,203
Laborers, brick factories.....	15,792	.5	Sawyers.....	3,151
Firemen, stationary.....	14,927	.5	Mail carriers.....	2,756
Lumbermen and raftsmen.....	14,095	.4	Physicians and surgeons.....	2,744
Laborers, blast furnaces.....	13,519	.4	Clerks in stores.....	2,582
Hostlers, stable hands.....	12,965	.4	Plumbers, steamfitters.....	2,285
Laborers, public service.....	12,767	.4	All other occupations.....	385,211	12.11
Brick and stone masons.....	12,401	.4			

Occupations of females.

Total breadwinners.....	2,013,981	100.0	Boarding-house keepers.....	9,183
Farm laborers.....	967,837	48.1	Cigar and tobacco workers.....	8,267
Laundresses not in laundry.....	361,551	17.9	Waiters.....	7,434
Cooks.....	205,939	10.2	Charwomen and cleaners.....	7,026
Farmers.....	79,399	3.9	Building trades.....	6,174
Dressmakers and seamstresses.....	38,148	1.9	Hairdressers.....	3,782
School teachers.....	22,441	1.1	Retail dealers.....	2,994
Nurses (not trained).....	17,874	.9	Restaurant keepers.....	2,734
Chambermaids.....	14,071	.7	Musicians and teachers.....	2,347
Laundry operatives.....	12,196	.6	Trained nurses.....	2,158
Housekeepers.....	10,021	.5	All other occupations.....	232,495	11.54

According to this table, the only groups forming a substantial proportion of all Negro breadwinners are the laborers, farmers, and laundresses. Other than farmers, no skilled or professional group forms even 1 per cent of the total. Under a liberal interpretation of terms, the number in these classes is only about 250,000, or 5 per cent of the total. It is apparent, therefore, that the possibilities of the race in skilled occupations have just begun. In view of the increasing demand of the Southern States for skilled workmen, it is vitally important to the colored people that they grasp every opportunity for industrial education.

Great as the economic value of industrial education is, it is by no means equal to the educational value resulting from the interaction of hand and mind in trade activities, and from the adaptation of the school curriculum, not only to the economic, but also to the intellectual and spiritual needs of the individual and the community. As stated in the first part of this chapter, the broad adaptation to these needs, realized in the effective industrial schools, emphasizes the study of physiology and hygiene, physical science, English, teacher training, sociology, civics, gardening, and other theory and practice required to enable the pupil to be of the greatest service to himself and his neighborhood.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE FACILITIES.

In view of the vital importance of the industrial education of colored people, both to the South and to the Negroes themselves, it is surprising that the public facilities are so inadequate. Though a few of the private institutions rank with the best in the country, the large majority are poorly equipped and only fairly effective. The institutions attempting any form of hand training are divided into two groups, namely, "Schools with industrial facilities," and "Schools with manual training and household arts."

The statistics for the former group are herewith presented.

SCHOOLS WITH INDUSTRIAL FACILITIES.

Industrial school groups.	Number of schools	Pupils.					
		Total.	Above elementary grade.	Industrial pupils.			
				Total.	Boys' industries.	Girls' industries.	Not classified.
Total.....	61	17, 146	5, 524	6, 295	2, 326	3, 776	193
State and Federal schools with industrial facilities.....	29	7, 988	3, 614	3, 508	1, 208	2, 300
Land-grant schools.....	16	5, 175	2, 298	2, 394	935	1, 459
State schools.....	13	2, 813	1, 316	1, 114	273	841
Private schools with industrial facilities.....	32	9, 158	2, 110	2, 787	1, 118	1, 476	193
Large institutions—Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes.....	2	2, 100	716	1, 336	613	723
Smaller industrial schools offering industrial courses for boys and girls.....	30	7, 058	1, 394	1, 451	505	753	193

SCHOOLS WITH INDUSTRIAL FACILITIES—continued.

Industrial school groups.	Teachers.				
	Total.	Industrial teachers.			
		Total.	Boys' industries.	Girls' industries.	Not classified.
Total.....	1,588	424	261	154	9
State and Federal schools with industrial facilities.....	619	179	112	66	1
Land-grant schools.....	400	126	87	38	1
State schools.....	219	53	25	28	
Private schools with industrial facilities.....	969	245	149	88	8
Large institutions—Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes.....	394	90	65	25	
Smaller industrial schools offering industrial courses for boys and girls.....	575	155	84	63	8

Industrial school groups.	Financial.			
	Total annual income.	Value of industrial plant.		
		Total.	Buildings.	Equipment.
Total.....	\$1,914,587	\$1,311,406	\$881,390	\$429,916
State and Federal schools with industrial facilities.....	828,077	658,963	494,450	164,513
Land-grant schools.....	543,623	360,404	238,500	121,994
State schools.....	284,450	208,469	255,950	42,519
Private schools with industrial facilities.....	1,086,514	652,443	386,940	265,403
Large institutions—Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes.....	557,444	384,553	234,140	150,413
Smaller industrial schools offering industrial courses for boys and girls.....	529,070	267,890	152,800	114,990

According to this table, there are 61 public and private institutions which offer some industrial training to their pupils. Of these, 29 are maintained by public funds and 32 by private funds. Effort has been made to ascertain the number of pupils who are taking the industrial courses. The quality and quantity of the instruction varies so greatly in different schools that any statement of numbers is of little significance. Most of the statistics herewith given are indications of possibilities rather than statements of what has been actually accomplished. Of the 17,146 pupils attending these schools, 5,524 are in classes above the elementary grades and 6,295 are taking the industrial courses. The similarity in the numbers of industrial pupils and of those above the elementary grades seems to indicate that a majority of the secondary pupils receive some industrial training during their stay in these schools. The time devoted to industry by these pupils varies from one-half day a week to six 8-hour days each week. The majority of the schools require not more than the equivalent of one day a week. Of the 1,588 teachers, 424 are giving most of their time to the industries. The total annual income of all the institutions is \$1,914,587, and the value of the buildings and equipment used for industrial instruction aggregates \$1,311,406.

The 29 institutions maintained by State and Federal funds make some provision for the training of the hands. The 16 agricultural and mechanical schools largely sup-

ported by appropriations from the National Government are fairly well equipped to teach the more important trades and to train girls in household arts. Only a few of them, however, teach the trades effectively and practically all subordinate the industrial training to the literary instruction. The 13 State institutions are schools of elementary and secondary grade, with some teacher-training courses and some facilities for manual training. Six of them are located in Northern States. In addition to these State institutions, well-managed manual training schools are maintained by the cities of Washington, D. C.; Charleston, S. C.; and Columbus, Ga.

The private institutions are divided into two groups. Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute, with their large plants, constitute the first group. They occupy a unique position, not only for their influence among the schools for colored people, but also for the part they play in determining the educational policies of the country. The second group includes 30 smaller institutions whose industrial plants and equipment are comparatively limited. Most of these schools have a real interest in industrial training. A few of them are doing very effective work in the preparation of their pupils for service to their community. Some have facilities to teach the trades that are needed in rural districts or small towns.

The following table summarizes the important facts concerning the "Schools with manual training and household arts":

SCHOOLS WITH MANUAL TRAINING AND HOUSEHOLD ARTS COURSES.

School group and kind of work.	Number of schools.	Pupils.		Teachers.	
		Total.	Above elementary grade.	Total.	Industrial teachers.
Total	174	34,143	8,548	1,960	311
Literary institutions offering manual training for boys and girls	73	18,155	5,678	1,075	173
Work fairly well done	39	11,978	4,443	728	118
Work poorly done	34	6,177	1,235	347	55
Literary institutions offering household arts courses only	101	15,988	2,870	885	138
Work fairly well done	45	9,254	1,836	507	90
Work poorly done	56	6,734	1,034	378	48

In the large majority of literary institutions that are making some provision for hand training, the industrial course is provided merely as a matter of form. Of the 174 schools in the group, 90 are classified as doing their work poorly. Those offering courses for boys and girls are 73 in number and those whose courses are limited to girls are 101 in number. The total enrollment in these schools is 34,143, of whom 8,548 are in classes above the elementary grades. Of 1,960 teachers employed, 311 are giving most of their time to instruction in manual training and household arts. The courses in household arts are as a rule very much better taught than the industrial courses for boys. A few of the institutions for girls are doing excellent work.

A number of effective movements for the extension of industrial education have been organized within the past 10 years. These movements are the result of the coopera-

tion of the Jeanes Fund, the Slater Fund, and the General Education Board with the State and county departments of education. Through this cooperation, State supervisors of colored schools have been appointed in 9 Southern States and county industrial teachers are maintained in 131 counties of these and other States. These agencies have organized home-makers clubs, encouraged the introduction of industrial courses into the schools, and assisted in arousing public opinion favorable to industrial education.

MEANS AND METHODS.

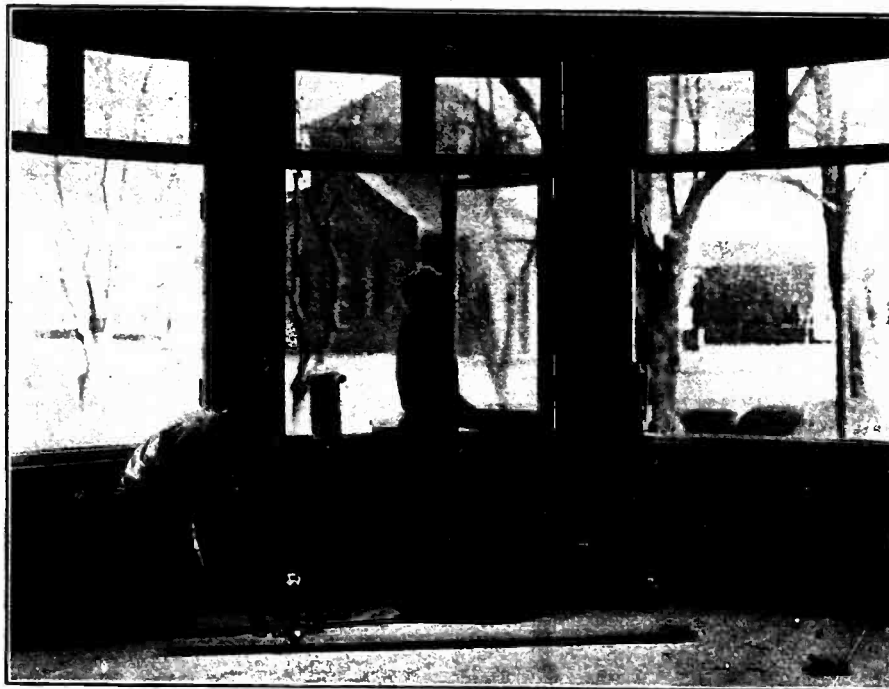
Any effort to advance the cause of industrial education must first of all make clear its purpose. The indifference and antagonism of many colored people to this phase of education are due largely to the failure to realize its significance. The aims of the better industrial schools for colored pupils have usually been broader than those of industrial or vocational schools for white pupils. The fundamental purpose has been to adapt all phases of education to the needs of the pupils and the community. Vocational preparation has been only a part of their program. This broad conception of their work is presented by Dr. David Snedden, formerly State Commissioner of Education of Massachusetts, in the following words:

At the close of the Civil War, the social life and organization of the Negro people of the South were, in a badly disorganized condition. Family relationships had been much impaired, and were frequently nonexistent. In other words, the home as an agency of education, vocational, or otherwise, was unable to perform its customary functions. Apprenticeship agencies had not developed; consequently, the acquisition of vocational skill and interest was not provided for among the Negroes. The most successful schools that grew up to meet this need were those which offered both liberal and vocational education, and in a sense made the latter the groundwork for the former. In the best Negro schools of the South to-day one will find many vocations taught in a very practical and effective manner, and it is generally conceded that the social effects of this training are genuinely worth while.

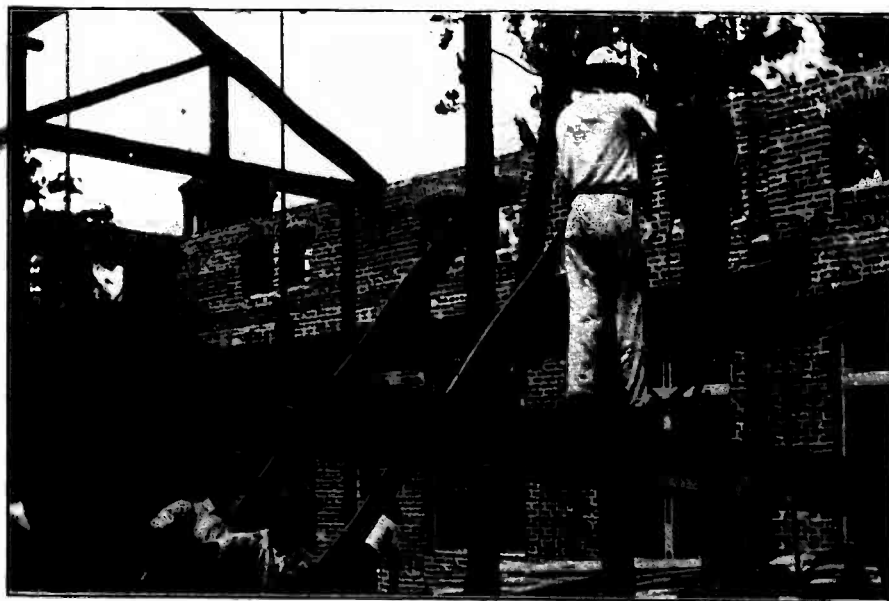
Confronted with a people who needed every element of life, the founders of industrial schools for Negroes sought those educational activities which proved to be most effective. Necessity thus forced these leaders in colored schools to ask the questions which the progressive, socially minded educators of our own day are asking of schools everywhere. Dr. Snedden is undoubtedly right in his statement that such institutions as Hampton, Tuskegee, Calhoun, Penn, Manassas, and Fort Valley are successfully working out a combination of liberal and vocational education. The curriculum of these schools includes the subjects and activities that are needed for the physical, mental, and moral welfare of their pupils. Their aim comprehends not only the well-being of their pupils but the sound development both of the school neighborhood and the communities from which the pupils have come. A study of the curricula of these institutions shows that they have been pioneers in many of the educational reforms of the country. The important features of their work are summarized in the following statements:

1. Character development through habit-forming activities in the classroom, the field, the shop, the home, and the dormitory. This involves the recognition of the educational or cultural value of the little daily activities in personal as well as in institutional affairs.

2. "Learning by doing," and the requirement that all educational activities shall be so far as possible under real conditions rather than the artificial arrangement of a laboratory.



A. ART IN CARPENTRY.



B. WORKING ON THE TRADES BUILDING, HAMPTON INSTITUTE.

3. The selection of studies according to the pupil's needs rather than traditional standards. This requires provision for such subjects as physiology and hygiene, English, physics, and chemistry, civics and social history, arithmetic, teacher training, agricultural and the practical arts.

4. The testing of the pupil's vocational aptitudes. The process should not only include the tests for industrial and agricultural pursuits, but also for the professions. Dr. Bawden, of the United States Bureau of Education, has shown that "the most important service that can be rendered the individual youth, under the name of vocational guidance, is to set him to thinking, at the proper time, about the problem of choosing a life work as a problem to be solved, and to make him aware of the sources of data having any bearing on its solution."

5. Neighborhood activities for the improvement of the physical, mental, and moral conditions of the community. This involves the development of cooperation with the white and colored people and especially with the public school authorities.

6. In addition to the increasing recognition of the broader phases of industrial education as these phases have been realized in the better schools for colored people, there is an emphatic demand for purely vocational training of American youth. The following quotation from the "Report of the Commission on National Aid for Vocational Education," which eventually led to the enactment of the law giving Federal aid for vocational education, not only outlines the need for this phase of education but also indicates its aims:

While many different kinds and grades of vocational education will always be required, the kind most urgently demanded at the present time is that which will prepare workers for the more common occupations in which the great mass of our people find useful employment.

There is a great and crying need of providing vocational education of this character for every part of the United States—to conserve and develop our resources; to promote a more productive and prosperous agriculture; to prevent the waste of human labor; to supplement apprenticeship; to increase the wage-earning power of our productive workers; to meet the increasing demand for trained workmen; to offset the increased cost of living. Vocational education is therefore needed as a wise business investment for this Nation, because our national prosperity and happiness are at stake and our position in the markets of the world can not otherwise be maintained.

The social and educational need for vocational training is equally urgent. Widespread vocational training will democratize the education of the country: (1) By recognizing different tastes and abilities and by giving an equal opportunity to all to prepare for their life work; (2) by extending education through part-time and evening instruction to those who are at work in the shop or on the farm. Vocational training will indirectly but positively affect the aims and methods of general education: (1) By developing a better teaching process through which the children who do not respond to book instruction alone may be reached and educated through learning by doing; (2) by introducing into our educational system the aim of utility, to take its place in dignity by the side of culture and to connect education with life by making it purposeful and useful. Industrial and social unrest is due in large measure to a lack of a system of practical education fitting workers for their callings. Higher standards of living are a direct result of the better education which makes workers more efficient, thus increasing their wage-earning capacity.

An overwhelming public sentiment shows the need for vocational education in this country. The testimony in this behalf comes from every class of citizenship, from the educator, the manufacturer, the trades-unionist, the business man, the social worker, and the philanthropist. Every State superintendent of public instruction declared that its rapid extension was required for many different reasons in his State and great national educational, civic, industrial, and commercial organizations, representing more than 12,000,000 people, have repeatedly gone on record as believing that a system of vocational education was absolutely necessary to the future welfare of the Nation.

It now remains only to describe the manual activities of the school program. Fortunately the task is by no means as difficult for the colored schools as it is for the white schools. This is explained by the fact that the large majority of the colored pupils live in rural communities and small towns whose industrial organization is very simple as compared with that of the large industrial cities of the North. The chapter on "Rural education" describes at length the agricultural elements of education so vital to the large majority of the colored people.

The industrial and manual development of the colored people requires the following courses of instruction adapted to the varying needs of the groups whose interest is to be awakened and directed:

1. Simple manual training adapted to boys and girls in elementary schools.
2. Mechanical practice or household arts, vocational outlook, and elementary economics in secondary schools.
3. Rural or small-town trades offered in small industrial schools.
4. Trade schools preparing industrial teachers and tradesmen for the mechanical pursuits and household arts for women.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES.

For boys in elementary grades there should be lessons in woodworking and in the repairs about the school, the home, the farm, or the shop. For girls, the lessons should center about the care of the home and include practice in cooking and sewing. Both boys and girls would gain much from instruction and practice in simple carpentry, glazing, chair caning, shoe mending, soldering, repairing furniture and windows and locks, and in similar activities entering into the care of the home. According to the commission which made a survey of the Butte, Mont., schools the "minimum amount of time for handwork in the elementary schools should be *one-half a day a week through the first six years, and two-half days per week in the seventh and eighth grades.*"

The essentials of industrial training for elementary schools are outlined in the following statement prepared by N. C. Newbold of the North Carolina State department of public instruction:

1. *Sanitation and health.*—Personal hygiene: Body cleanliness, care of teeth and eyes, and ears, food and drink. House hygiene: Cleanliness of the house, keeping down dust, elimination of flies and mosquitoes, and stagnant water on the premises, care of food and water, sanitary outhouses. School hygiene: Cleanliness, ventilation, sanitary closets, drinking cups.
2. *Cooking.*—Cleanliness of kitchen and utensils, economy of time and material, selection of food, serving meals, and care of the dining room.
3. *Sewing.*—The various kinds of stitches, mending, plain sewing, making necessary garments for everyday wear, fancy sewing and embroidery, cutting and fitting.
4. *Housekeeping and home decoration.*—Cleanliness, simplicity, economy, selection of furnishings, homemade furniture, decorations and pictures, painting and whitewashing, laundering, home amusements.
5. *Manual training.*—Simple repairs in wood and iron, use and care of tools, making small implements needed in the house and on the farm, lessons in elementary drawing and designing.

The statement further outlines the essentials in gardening and the simpler forms of agriculture, including the care of poultry and orchards.

For a more detailed statement, see p. 108.

VOCATIONAL OUTLOOK AND ELEMENTARY ECONOMICS IN SECONDARY AND HIGHER SCHOOLS.

Every secondary and higher school for colored people should enable its pupils first to realize vocational possibilities open to them; second, to test their aptitudes in different lines of activity; and third, to begin preparation for their life work. This requires a knowledge of elementary economics and an opportunity for practice in mechanical pursuits or in household arts. Such a broad vocational outlook is vital not only to the pupil's personal welfare, but much more to the development of an intelligent appreciation of the industrial problems of the masses of the colored people. The following quotation from the preliminary report of the Commission on Secondary Education emphasizes the importance of these elements in secondary education everywhere:

In an increasing degree it is being considered the function of the high school to prepare all children of secondary school age for the lives they are to live and the work they are to do. It is obvious that if the present high schools do not meet the new demands made upon them, a new type of schools will be necessary for pupils of secondary school age.

If the high schools assume to prepare all children of secondary school age for the work which they must do, it is obvious that the schools must provide opportunities for differentiation of subjects and courses at various stages in the advancement of the pupils.

The large number of persons who will eventually enter industrial occupations should receive, while they are of secondary school age:

- (1) Opportunities for discovering any special aptitude which they may possess.
- (2) Opportunities for special preparation for entrance to a skilled trade.
- (3) Opportunities for acquiring a knowledge of the principles governing the management, supervision, and administration of the business of industry.

If the educational policy outlined above is necessary to the progress of white people, it is even more urgently required by the colored people, whose low industrial status is so clearly shown by the statistics on occupations.

As a suggestion of the content of a course in manual training for young men, the following statement is cited from the catalogue of an institution that has been especially successful in combining theory and practice in handwork:

All boys in the secondary course devote two or more hundred-minute periods each week throughout the four years to some form of handwork.

The chief purpose of this course is to make men more resourceful in meeting certain emergencies that are constantly arising in the home, on the farm, and in the schoolroom. To this end the elements of the following kinds of handwork are taught: Woodwork, harness repairing, cabinet work, chair-caning, cornshuck mat making, bookbinding, wood turning, mechanical drawing, tinsmithing, shoe repairing, upholstery, and general repair work. From this list of subjects individual programs are arranged.

The first year is devoted to elementary woodwork, harness repairing, wood turning, and cornshuck mat making. The woodwork is preceded by a short course in mechanical drawing to enable the student to make intelligently working drawings of the things he will have to construct in wood. Instruction is given in the use and care of woodworking tools, methods of forestry, lumbering, transportation of lumber from the forest to the mill, and its preparation for commercial purposes.

The work in the second year may be either woodwork, wood turning, harness repairing, or chair-caning, which ever is best for the particular student. Owing to its large field of usefulness, the work in wood is continued during this year by those who are likely to become special teachers of woodwork. Many graduates are required to teach this subject who have no trade training, and this extra time in woodworking will help to prepare them for such work.

In the third year the subjects taken are wood turning, tinsmithing, mechanical drawing, and shoe repairing, divided into half-year terms as circumstances may require. The wood turning is to increase the student's command of woodworking tools in connection with machinery. The tinsmithing is to

acquaint the student with different metals and fluxes, to enable him to make articles for his use, but chiefly to teach him to repair leaky vessels and to do similar work about his home. The object of the mechanical drawing is to prepare the student to make sketches and a working drawing of any ordinary object, and to make a set of plans for a simple house or outbuilding. The shoe repairing is to prepare the student to teach such work in the country school.

The work of the *fourth year* is entirely elective. The student may take the normal course in manual training arranged for the purpose of helping him conduct the practical forms of handwork suitable for the upper grades, or he may specialize in a particular branch of manual training with a view to teaching it, or he may do practice teaching in the manual-training classes at the institute, and in the public and evening schools of the neighborhood.

The essentials of a course in household economics are herewith presented in the outline of a course which has been successfully applied for a number of years:

The principal object of the work in home economics is to train young women to make good homes and to enable them to teach others to make good homes. The classroom time given to this work is two eighty-minute periods a week during four years. Besides this, one entire day each week and portions of the other days are devoted to practical training in the home-making arts.

The *first-year* course in cooking and housework includes work in cooking cereals, vegetables, cheese, eggs, fish, meat; making bread, cake, pastry, salads, desserts, ices, and homemade candies; table setting and the preparation and serving of family meals; invalid cookery; canning of fruits and vegetables; making jelly, and pickling. Practical training in housekeeping is given in the dormitories, and in the teachers' and students' kitchens, dining rooms, and laundries.

The course in sewing includes the use and care of sewing machines; drafting; making underclothing; the repairing of boys' clothing in the laundry; the mending of the girls' own clothing; the repairing of linen for the boarding departments; the making of bed and table linen, waitresses' aprons and caps, and other household necessities in the industrial sewing room; rug weaving, including dyeing, rug designing, color harmony, and pleasing proportion; simple lessons in making over hats.

In the *second year* lessons are given in the care of milk. In cooking, the course includes a study of the nutritive value of foods; the planning of a well-balanced menu; the preparation and serving of a family dinner; advanced cookery, including canning, preserving, making of jellies, extracts, and baking powder; deep-fat frying; fancy breads, pastry, frozen mixtures, and candies. Cookery for the sick and serving on trays are also considered. Special attention is given to the cuts of meat and the best methods of cooking the cheaper cuts, as well as to the cost of meats and substitutes.

Practical training in housekeeping is given in the school dormitories, kitchens, dining-rooms, and laundries.

In sewing, the course includes drafting, cutting, and making underclothing and a set of infant's clothes; knitting and crocheting; the making of children's clothes; bed and table linen, waitresses' aprons and caps, and other household articles; rug weaving, dyeing, and designing; household mending, simple lessons in trimming and renovating hats.

In the *third year* the girls are given a year's instruction and practice in simple carpentry, glazing, chair-caning, soldering, repairing furniture, windows, and locks, and in such other work as enters into the care of the home.

In the *fourth year* the work in housekeeping consists of the care of rooms and dormitories; waiting in students' and teachers' dining rooms; and assisting in the teachers' kitchen, bedrooms, dining rooms, and kitchens.

In sewing, the course includes drafting, cutting, and making dresses (each girl making her own graduating dress); making paper patterns; simple lessons in millinery, including the making of wire hat frames and covering the same with straw braid and trimming.

All the girls are given a simple course in home sanitation, including talks (two hours a week) on the care of the sick room and the small attentions necessary to the comfort of an invalid; the laws of health and the influence of heredity; the preparation and use of domestic remedies and disinfectants, and the sanitary care of a home; the prevention of tuberculosis; personal habits as affecting health and character; lessons in first aid in injury and illness.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.



A school building left standing uncompleted for years.



Same building as above, remodeled.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 16.

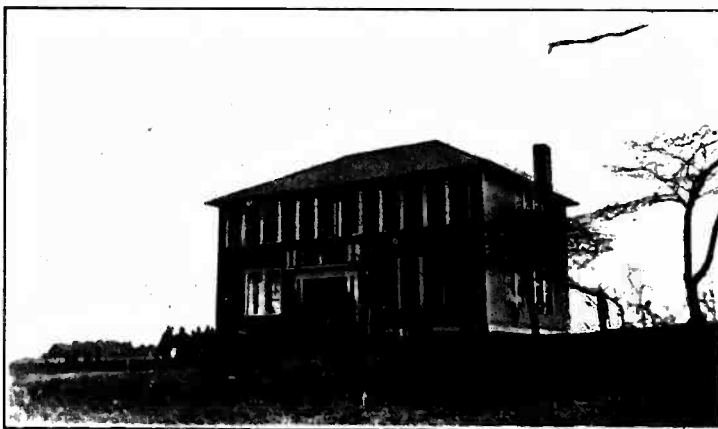


Rural school and workshop, Montgomery County, Ala.



A church where school is taught.

RURAL SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN ALABAMA.



THE OLD AND THE NEW IN RURAL SCHOOL BUILDING.

Two schools in the same county. The upper building is very poorly planned as regards lighting and dimensions of classrooms. The lower picture shows a building properly planned, the windows properly grouped, and classrooms arranged to give the required amount of floor space for each class.

For the young women there should be instruction in cooking and sewing with ample practice in the boarding department and in the care of the dormitories. The course should be based on the neighborhood needs. Wherever possible, arrangement should be made for practice in the homes of the community. Special attention should be given to the kinds of food and the methods of cooking in the pupils' homes. Canning and preserving vegetables and fruits and the effective care of the kitchen garden are essential parts of the instruction. Throughout the course there should be a recognition of the principles of hygiene and sanitation.

RURAL TRADES IN SMALLER INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

There are a number of smaller institutions with genuine interest in industrial instruction. In these schools the plant and equipment are usually sufficient to teach the simpler phases of the occupations required in rural districts or small towns. For the young men, they should endeavor to provide training in the elements of carpentry, blacksmithing, bricklaying, cement and concrete construction, adapted to small towns. Sound policy demands that the school shall limit its instruction according to the equipment, number of teachers, and the enrollment of pupils. Pupils who desire to prepare for city occupations or for the more technical trades should be urged to prepare for larger trade schools. It is probable that the most effective daily program for the smaller industrial schools would provide for *a half-day of classroom work and a half day of practice in the fields and shops every day*. No single program can possibly meet all conditions, but the following outline will at least suggest the more important mechanical occupations of small towns and rural districts:

Blacksmithing.—Exercises in welding iron and steel, and use of sand and borax; making and tempering cold chisels and screw drivers; making staples, lap links, S links and hooks. Talks on iron, steel, and smithing coal; building and care of the fire; tools and how to handle them; setting and use of the anvil, and proper position of the smith.

Harness work.—Tools: Names and uses of different harnessmaker's tools. Exercises: Making of hame straps, over checks, tugs for breeching, slide loops, and splicing loops; repairing harness. Talks on leather and the various grades to be obtained from different skins; how to tell good stock, test the strength, distinguish between hand or drum stuffed, and to tell if stock is weighted.

Shoe repairing.—Names and uses of various tools used in a shoe shop. Sewing with different kinds of awls; sewing in clamp; sewing up eye of shoe; making a thread, and putting on bristles; putting on cement patches, half soles, and heels; talks on different points in shoe repairing.

Sheet-metal work.—Uses of different sheet metals and the solders and fluxes used to unite them. Dressing and tinning a soldering copper; uniting strips of the different metals by soldering; soldering tarnished tinware; making chloride of zinc, and hanging eave trough. Putting on corrugated iron roofing and siding. Talks on sheet metal, fluxes, solders, their sizes, and how to order.

Woodwork.—Uses to which the various woods are best adapted. Names and uses of tools; how to grind, whet, or sharpen them for different purposes. Work out a piece of lumber to dimensions, planing it from out of wind to a true straight surface. Gauge and lay off a piece of lumber, saw to lines, lay off ends with a square, join one edge square to face. Smooth end grain with block plane. Work out a square piece, change it to octagonal, and then to round. Make mortise and tenon joint; roller towel rack, using piece that had been made round; V-shaped feed trough; bracket shelf; bench vise; lay out and make miter box; make picture frame, using miter box; make hall tree; stain and varnish picture frame and hall tree; repair tools and make new handles. Lay out and build a work bench; the making, bracing, and hanging of a gate; taking measurements, laying out and building of steps; measuring, laying off, and cutting of common rafters for roof of any pitch and for any width of building. Lesson in house painting. Talks on the different kinds of wood growing in the various localities from which the members of the class came; the best season to cut; how to stack, and how to care for lumber after it comes from the mill.

TRADE SCHOOLS.

There are at least three essentials of a genuine trade school:

(1) Teachers who combine real mechanical skill and practical knowledge of the trades with ability to teach. A broad education contributes much to the influence of the teacher.

(2) A time program that provides practice that is as nearly as possible like that of the occupation to be learned. The time programs at present include schools requiring only one practice day each week, those with five half-days of practice each week, those with alternate days in school and shop, and one institution requiring six 8-hour days each week in the shop.

(3) Facilities for teaching the trades under conditions that are as nearly as possible like those of the actual trade. Preference should be given to the facilities for the trades in which there is greatest demand for workmen.

At present only Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, and some of the land-grant institutions are sufficiently equipped to be called trade schools. With reorganization and more liberal support from the States the 16 land-grant schools could maintain first-class trade schools.

The following quotations from the catalogue of an excellent institution outline the important features of a trade-school course:

The trade school offers four-year courses in the following departments:

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Blacksmithing. | 6. Painting. | 11. Tinsmithing. |
| 2. Bricklaying and plastering. | 7. Printing. | 12. Upholstery. |
| 3. Carpentry. | 8. Shoemaking. | 13. Wheelwrighting. |
| 4. Cabinetmaking. | 9. Steamfitting and plumbing. | |
| 5. Machine work. | 10. Tailoring. | |

Hours of work.—Each trade student spends eight hours a day in trade work, six days in the week except during the first year, when he spends five hours. He also spends one period in the morning and two in the evening in class work five days in the week. One-half of the fourth year is devoted entirely to class work.

Course of study.—The academic subjects common to all courses are agriculture, algebra, American history, civics, current events, English, general science, singing, Bible, geometry, general history, literature, bookkeeping, psychology, principles of teaching, economics, and sociology. The subjects especially for trade-school students are described below:

Applied mathematics.—This course is designed to give each student special training and drill in the application of the fundamental processes of mathematics to the problems occurring in his chosen trade. Care is used to select a wide variety of exercises so as to test thoroughly the students' grasp of basic principles. The classes are divided into small groups, enabling the instructor to understand fully the individual needs of each student, and the course is so flexible as to make it possible at any time for him to give such work as will strengthen any weaknesses he may discover. No class of problems furnishes such a strong motive for intense study as those which grow out of the daily work of the shops. These problems are utilized to the fullest extent.

Business training.—This course embraces the study of simple contracts, common mercantile terms and usages, banks and banking, building and loan associations, partnership, fire and life insurance, real estate transactions, mechanics' liens, rights and duties of employee and employer, and simple accounts. Practice is required in the drafting of business and legal forms in ordinary use.

Chemistry.—A general course in chemistry is given to all boys. This course includes the study of terms, and definitions, oxygen, hydrogen, acids, bases, salts, air, carbon, fuels, combustion, and water.

Special courses supplementing the work done in the general course are given to students in the trade school. The emphasis in these courses is upon the selection and testing of raw materials, their refinement, and the character of the finished product.

Mechanical drawing.—Mechanical drawing is given as part of the training of all trade students excepting tailors, shoemakers, painters, and printers; these have freehand drawing instead.

The course in drawing is arranged to give the student a general knowledge of working drawings, to prepare him to read these intelligently, to cultivate ability to make working drafts, plans, elevations, and sections of tools, buildings, machines, wagons, and other work in the line of his trade, and to build according to the same.

The first step in the consideration of trades for colored women is to determine the extent to which it is wise to encourage them to specialize in different occupations. The uncertainty on this point is due to the great demand for young women of general training adapted to become teachers of the masses of the colored people. The wise course is probably to encourage the institutions to devote most of their resources to the general course in household arts but to keep the door open for young women of special aptitudes to become skilled in such occupations as millinery, dressmaking, tailoring, and trained nursing.

PUBLIC PROVISION FOR INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

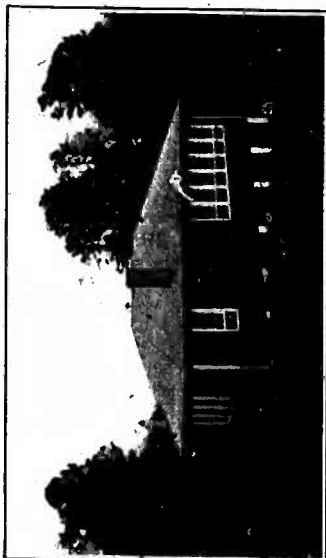
The ultimate success of education, industrial and otherwise, depends upon financial support by State and local governments. The following quotation is a part of an address on a "State program for industrial and social efficiency," delivered before the National Education Association by Arthur D. Dean, of the University of the State of New York:

Picture three parallel columns. In the first column place all the State-wide changes which have taken place under the name of industrial progress. In the second, all the legislation which has been or is about to be enacted for the State-wide industrial and social advance of workers. In the third, all the State-wide programs for the educational advantage of our youth and adults and you will see how far behind we are as States in the conservation and the increasing of human wealth as it might be influenced by the public school system.

Industry neither argues nor sleeps. It works. Labor unions argue long and earnestly and then place their final word into a workmen's compensation law. Social workers confer and confer and confer again; but behold, the State has a child labor law or a widows' pension, or a minimum wage. But we ———?

Of course the States have done something. Some far more than others. I should be the last to deny that. The progressive ones are those which consider that education is the affair of the State—that the child is not to be disadvantaged by the community in which he happens to be born; that medical inspection is as important as factory inspection; that fire escapes on schoolhouses are as important as those on a factory; that a decent wage for women teachers is as necessary as for the shop girl; that a system of taxation for supporting good consolidated schools is as beneficial as a State highway system; that certified teachers are as worthy of consideration as certified mill; that a free university training in liberal subjects is as reasonable as a free college training in agriculture; that extension service for the mechanic is as sensible as that for the farmer. It is such things as these which make up, to a considerable extent, a program for industrial and social efficiency.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

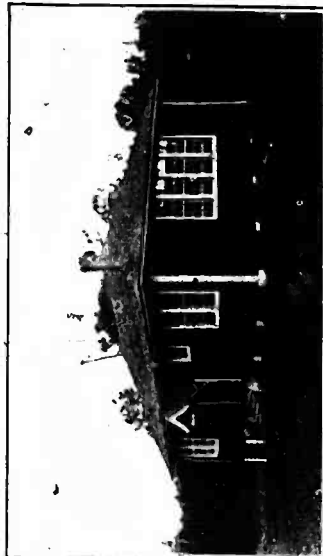


Sweet Gum Rural School, showing windows in workrooms and classrooms.



Teacher and pupils preparing a meal at Sweet Gum School.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 18 PLATE 18.

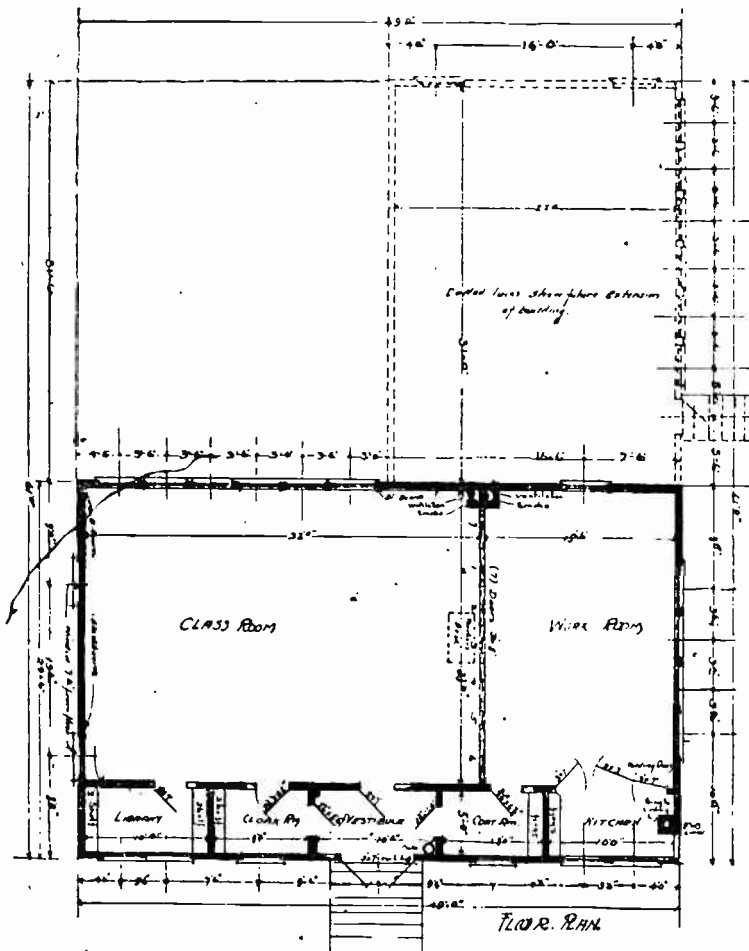


Another view, showing windows in library, cloakrooms, and workroom.



A teachers' home and rural school.

MACON COUNTY RURAL SCHOOLS.



FLOOR PLAN, SWEET GUM SCHOOL, MACON COUNTY, ALA.

A one-teacher school. The dotted lines show the plan for future extension. With this plan carried out the building can be used as a two-teacher school without material rearrangement.

VII. RURAL EDUCATION.

Preparation for rural life is the greatest educational problem of the white and colored people of the South. The rural education of the Negro is absolutely essential, not only to the welfare of the race, but also to the successful development of the Southern States. Though rural opportunities are perhaps least appreciated by the educated group of colored people, they are those in which the Negroes are making their most remarkable gains. Rural life represents both the best progress and the greatest needs of the colored people. All plans for improvement must give large consideration to the problems of the rural Negroes.

Important as this phase of education is, both to the South and to the colored people, the public and private facilities provided are very inadequate. Other than the agricultural and mechanical schools, largely maintained by Federal funds, the States make practically no provision for agricultural education. Of the private schools, Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, and a few smaller institutions are making a genuine effort to prepare pupils for rural life. With very few exceptions, however, the colored schools have failed to develop an interest in rural problems. The large majority have not even tried.

The explanation of the indifference is in the conviction of the colored people that the way to prosperity and happiness is the study of literary subjects and especially the classical languages. In this they are following the example of the white people, who are only now beginning to see the error of their belief. This conviction is emphasized by the life of drudgery which the pupils in colored schools have always seen to be the lot of colored farmers. Their own limited education, also, makes them loath to lose any opportunity to master the wonders of the printed page.

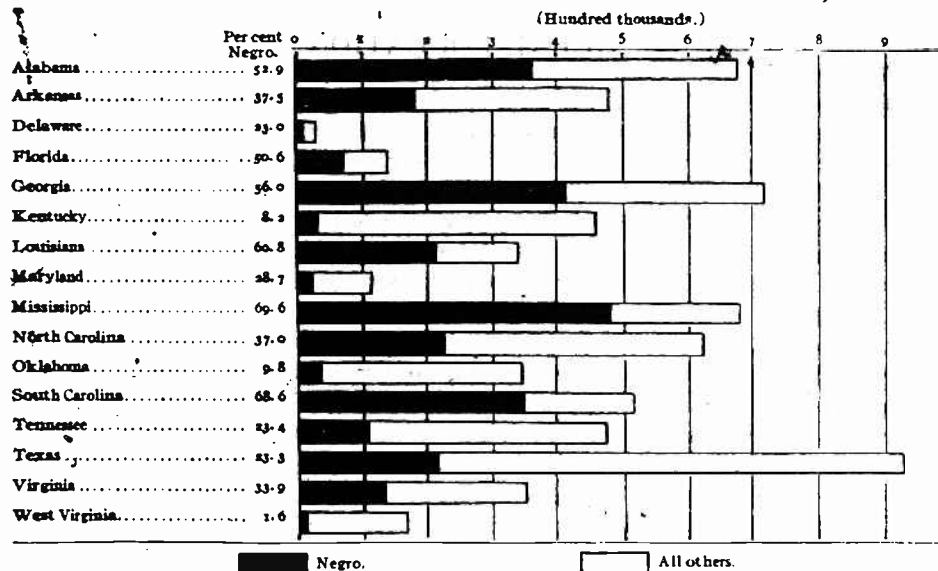
A partial explanation for the failure of the schools lies in poorly prepared agricultural teachers, who have themselves only a weak-hearted belief in rural life. With inadequate training and a lukewarm interest in their subject, these teachers have endeavored to make use of large farms in their educational efforts. Failure was inevitable. The emphatic conclusion of this study is, therefore, that the first step in rural education should be the enthusiastic advocacy of the theory and practice of gardening, for every colored pupil. The advantage of a simple gardening course is that it presents to the pupil the interesting features concerning soil culture, in a period which the pupil feels he can spare and in projects which even the teachers of limited preparation can handle with success. Such a course enables pupils to realize the wonders of the soil, and spurs on to further study those who have an inclination to become farmers.

IMPORTANCE OF THE NEGRO TO SOUTHERN AGRICULTURE.

The population of the South is 77.5 per cent rural. About two-thirds of the people are white and one-third colored. The relationship of these two groups on the farm is so vital that neither can afford to be indifferent to the welfare of the other. The extent of the mutual dependence is presented in the following chart, based on the United States census for 1910:

NEGRO EDUCATION.

PROPORTION NEGROES FORM OF ALL PERSONS IN AGRICULTURAL PURSUITS: 1910.



The black parts of the bars cover 40 per cent of the total area in the bars of the chart. In other words, 40 per cent of all persons engaged in the agricultural pursuits of the South are Negro laborers or Negro farmers. In Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana the Negroes on farms range from 60 per cent to almost 70 per cent of the total. Alabama and Georgia, each with over a quarter of a million Negro farm workers, reported 53 and 56 per cent of their farm force as Negroes. It has been reliably estimated that the total area cultivated by Negro laborers and farmers is at least 100,000,000 acres. The importance of the Negroes on farms is emphasized by the substantial increases shown in the following table for every Southern State except Kentucky:

State.	Number of Negroes on farms.		Increase.	Per cent increase.
	1910.	1900.		
Alabama	353,906	279,480	74,426	26.6
Arkansas	177,491	117,571	59,920	51.0
Delaware	5,345	4,024	1,321	32.8
District of Columbia	403	400	3	.8
Florida	70,697	43,245	27,452	63.5
Georgia	411,086	277,970	133,116	47.9
Kentucky	37,537	38,222	165	1.8
Louisiana	211,873	189,969	21,868	11.5
Maryland	33,551	27,193	6,358	23.4
Mississippi	472,594	337,940	134,654	39.8
North Carolina	226,525	160,194	66,331	41.4
Oklahoma	34,259	30,402	3,857	12.7
South Carolina	351,927	267,326	84,601	31.6
Tennessee	109,848	90,337	19,511	21.6
Texas	217,930	145,555	72,375	49.7
Virginia	127,730	103,521	24,209	23.4
West Virginia	2,450	2,116	334	15.8

¹ Decrease.

Of the States with a considerable proportion of Negroes, the largest increase was for Florida, with 63.5 per cent. Other large increases were: Arkansas, 51 per cent; Texas, 49.7; Georgia, 47.9; North Carolina, 47.4; and Mississippi, 39.8. Not only did the Negroes increase in number in these States, but they increased more rapidly than the white people on farms in all States except Louisiana, Kentucky, Virginia, and Alabama. It is evident that a race playing such an impressive part in the agricultural activities of the South demands the serious thought and interest of those in positions of authority.

STATUS OF NEGROES IN RURAL DISTRICTS.

It is exceedingly unfortunate that many of the educational leaders of the colored people do not sufficiently appreciate the significance of the remarkable progress of the Negro race in agriculture. It is not surprising, however, that the unfavorable conditions under which many of the Negroes are working in rural districts should delude the superficial observer into the belief that some urban occupation is to be preferred. The urban movement now strong among white people is partly the result of a similar delusion from which they too are suffering. In the rural sections in which many of the Negroes are living there are poor roads, inadequate school facilities, and, worst of all, lack of police protection. Reliable reports are too frequent that some colored person in a rural district has been beaten or lynched for an offense which later investigation proved to be trivial or the act of another. While the total number of such instances may be few, they are sufficient to create an unfavorable attitude toward life in a rural community.

Unfortunate as the rural conditions of the colored people may be, their educational leaders should realize, first, that the most significant and the most substantial gains made by the race are in the rural communities, and secondly, that whatever their condition may be, the large majority of them are now living in the country, actually working on the soil, and earning thereby the little or the much which is necessary to purchase food and clothes, to send their children to school, and to open the doors of larger opportunities for the future. The statistical basis for these observations is presented in the facts obtained from the United States census of 1910.

Of the 5,192,535 Negro breadwinners¹ in the United States, 2,893,380, or 55 per cent, were either farm laborers or farmers. The number in each of the other occupations is unimportant as compared with the large number in agriculture. But it is not the breadwinners on farms alone who constitute the measure of those who should have a practical knowledge of soil cultivation and an appreciation of the importance of farming in the development of the race. In the South practically 80 per cent of all colored people are living in rural districts. Even those who live in the southern cities have easy access to large plots of ground which may be used for gardens. The dependence of these large numbers on the soil is an impressive indictment of the disregard which the educational leaders of the colored people have manifested toward agricultural education.

The rural progress of the race is fairly well measured by the rapidity with which the agricultural workers have been passing from the rank of farm laborers to that of tenants and later to that of owners. According to the census of 1910 there were 2,893,380 Negroes engaged in agricultural pursuits as against 2,143,154 in 1900, repre-

¹ For occupation tables, see p. 84.

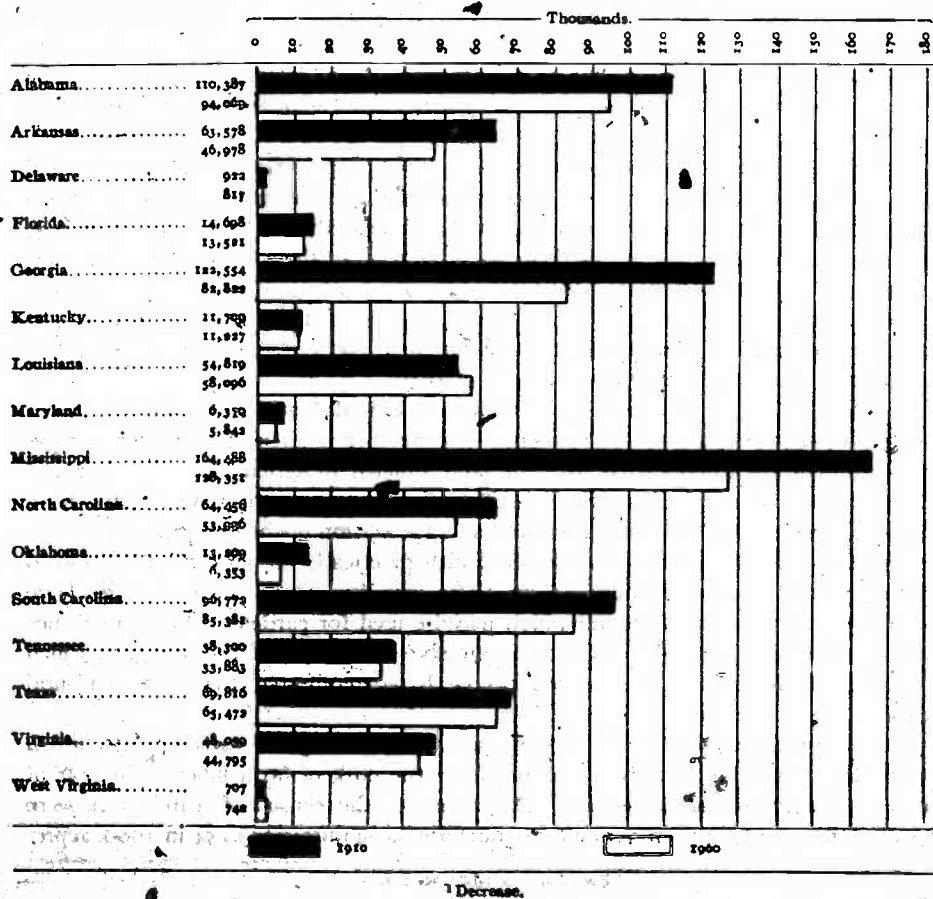
NEGRO EDUCATION.

senting an increase of 705,226, or 25.9 per cent. The following table gives the number of farms operated by each agricultural group in 1910 and in 1900:

	Number of Negro farmers.		Increase.	Per cent
	1910.	1900.	1900-1910.	increase.
Total.....	893,370.	746,715	146,655	16.4
Owners.....	218,972	187,797	31,175	14.2
Tenants.....	672,964	557,174	115,790	17.2
Managers.....	1,434	1,744	310	17.8

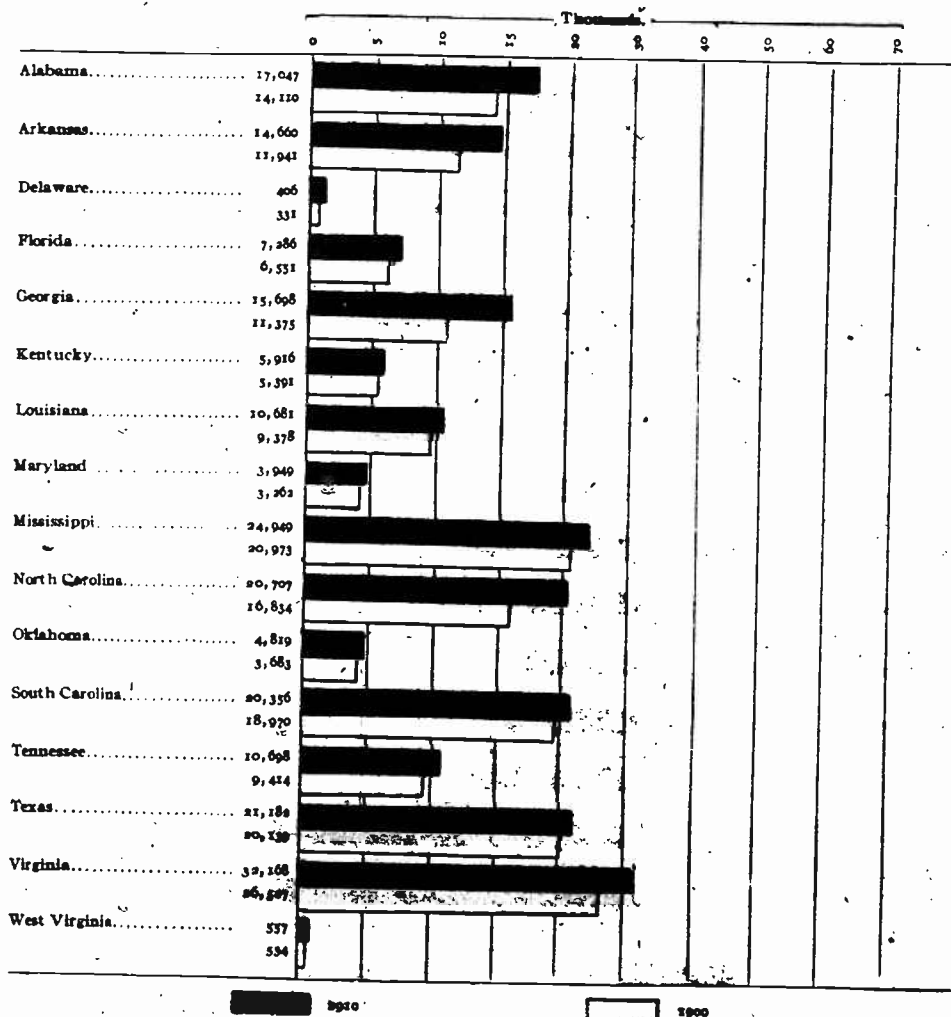
In view of the large proportion which the colored workers in agricultural pursuits form of all colored breadwinners, the increases shown in this table are significant of the general progress of the race. The increase in farms operated by Negroes between 1900 and 1910 was 146,655, or 16.4 per cent. The owned farms were 218,972 in 1910, having increased 14.2 in 10 years. The tenant farms were 672,964, showing an increase of 17.2 per cent. The distribution of Negro farmers in the Southern States for 1910 and 1900 is shown in the following chart:

NUMBER OF NEGRO FARMERS, 1900 AND 1910.



Every State except Louisiana shows an increase in the number of Negro farmers. The most striking increase is that for Georgia, where Negro farmers numbered 82,822 in 1900 and 122,554 in 1910. The loss in Louisiana was due to the ravages of the boll-weevil. Mississippi heads the list with 164,488 Negro farmers, Georgia coming next with 122,554. Alabama is the only other State which has over 100,000 Negro farmers. The number of these farmers who own their land is indicated for each Southern State in the charts.

NUMBER OF NEGRO FARM OWNERS, 1900 AND 1910.



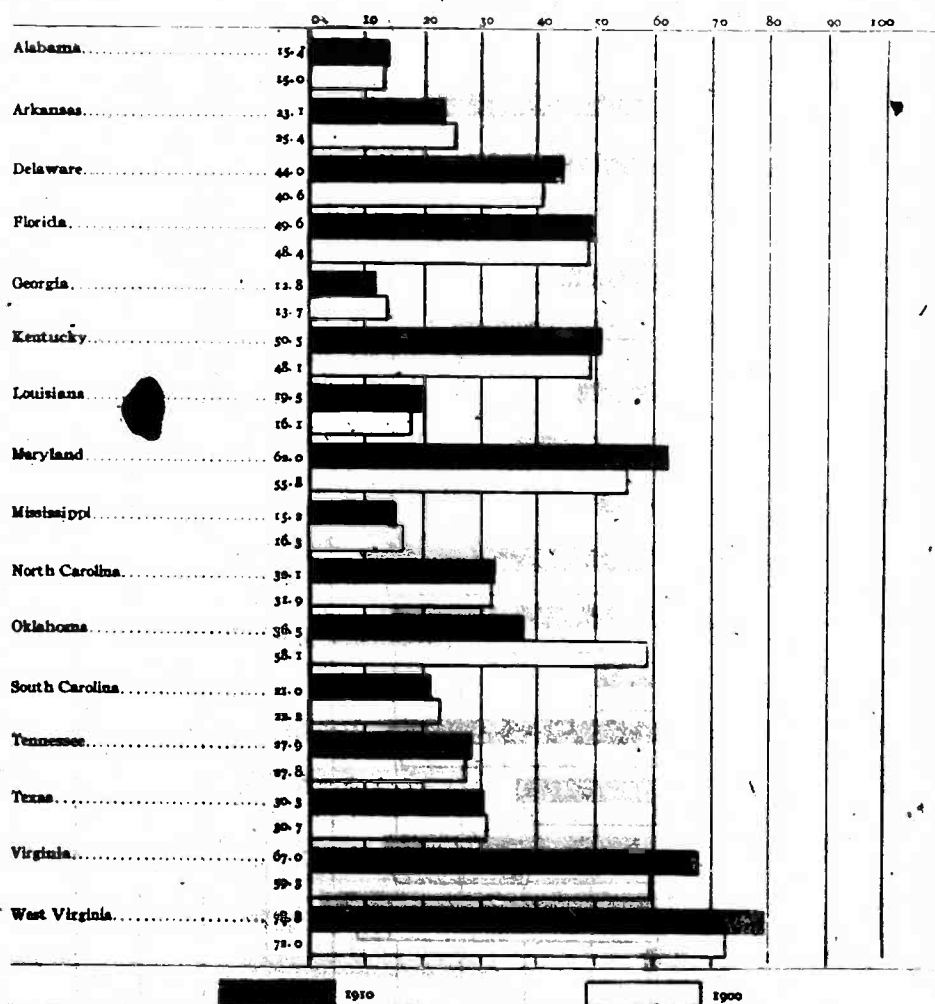
The banner States for farm ownership among Negroes are Virginia, Georgia, and Mississippi. Virginia leads in the proportion of farms owned. This was 67 per cent in 1910, a remarkable result to be accomplished in less than half a century. Georgia's

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high record is in the 36 per cent increase in land owners, the largest for all the States. Mississippi is noteworthy both for the large number of owners and for the substantial increase. It is to be noted that the proportion of land owners in Georgia is the lowest of all the States. This fact is to be explained not by a lack of progress, but rather by the fact that the large ownership increase was eclipsed by the larger increase of tenants.

PERCENTAGE OF OWNERS AMONG NEGRO FARMERS, 1900 AND 1910.

(Per cent.)



The following tabulation of the acreage and value of the Negro farms is presented as further evidence that in spite of all the difficulties in rural communities, such remarkable progress has been made as to warrant the appeal to educational leaders of the race for a more genuine interest in agricultural education, and to the public authorities for more educational facilities for the rural communities.

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ACREAGE AND VALUE OF FARMS OPERATED BY COLORED FARMERS: 1910.

State.	Farm acreage.			Value of farm property.		
	Total.	Owned.	Rented.	Total.	Owned.	Rented.
Total.....	42,259,247	15,691,478	26,567,769	\$1,104,496.687	\$346,829,358	\$757,667,329
Alabama.....	5,073,953	1,466,719	3,607,234	96,856,685	22,506,427	74,350,258
Arkansas.....	2,647,230	1,204,114	1,443,116	86,871,173	27,139,889	59,731,284
Delaware.....	54,578	13,615	40,963	2,184,474	686,322	1,498,152
Florida.....	758,731	458,443	300,288	14,622,184	8,779,585	5,842,599
Georgia.....	7,064,500	1,349,503	5,714,997	156,988,269	25,679,922	131,308,347
Kentucky.....	436,459	255,363	181,096	17,519,312	8,908,927	8,610,385
Louisiana.....	2,103,345	834,695	1,268,650	55,834,314	16,494,075	39,340,239
Maryland.....	345,156	122,039	223,117	10,953,278	4,879,716	6,073,562
Mississippi.....	6,420,549	2,227,194	4,193,355	186,458,876	44,417,423	142,041,453
North Carolina.....	3,166,812	1,107,496	1,969,316	80,804,831	27,448,410	53,356,421
Oklahoma.....	2,270,416	1,599,655	670,761	58,674,493	40,590,030	18,084,463
South Carolina.....	3,898,022	1,098,044	2,799,978	117,281,487	27,340,950	89,940,537
Tennessee.....	1,588,396	590,676	997,720	53,181,362	16,411,350	36,770,012
Texas.....	4,188,979	1,866,742	2,322,237	111,736,262	39,873,225	71,863,037
Virginia.....	2,208,735	1,381,223	827,512	53,266,983	34,774,150	18,492,833
West Virginia.....	33,886	25,957	7,929	1,262,704	898,957	363,747

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE FACILITIES.

It is practically impossible to give a satisfactory measure of the facilities available for the agricultural education of colored people. It is safe to say, however, that the present equipment and teaching force provide little more than a beginning in rural education. The following table summarizes the principal facts concerning the different groups of schools which have any facilities for teaching agriculture:

SUMMARY OF AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

School groups.	Number of schools.	Pupils.		Teachers.		Acres of land.	
		Total.	Above elementary grade.	Total.	Of agriculture.	Owned.	Cultivated.
Total.....	85	21,462	6,232	1,838	115	23,940	10,929
Schools supported largely by public funds.....	29	7,988	3,614	619	49	5,974	2,675
Land-grant schools.....	16	5,175	2,298	400	39	4,812	1,981
State schools.....	13	2,813	1,316	219	10	1,162	694
Schools supported largely by private funds.....	56	13,474	2,618	1,219	66	17,966	8,254
Large schools offering 4-year courses in agriculture.....	2	2,100	716	394	30	3,270	1,636
Smaller schools offering some class theory and farm practice.....	22	4,380	572	376	25	8,695	2,970
Schools offering class theory but farming on commercial basis.....	18	4,807	795	298	11	4,111	2,115
Schools giving no instruction, but farming on a commercial basis.....	14	2,187	535	151	1,890	1,533

¹ Hampton is grouped with the private institutions below.

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SUMMARY OF AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS—Continued.

School groups.	Value of agricultural plant.			Total income.
	Total.	Land.	Buildings, equipment, and live stock.	
Total.....	\$1,766,557	\$1,431,967	\$334,590	\$2,013,155
Schools supported largely by public funds.....	542,093	409,950	132,143	828,073
Land-grant schools.....	395,660	290,350	105,310	543,623
State schools.....	146,433	119,600	26,833	284,450
Schools supported largely by private funds.....	1,224,464	1,022,017	202,447	1,185,082
Large schools offering 4-year courses in agriculture.....	364,979	215,000	149,979	557,444
Smaller schools offering some class theory and farm practice.....	221,343	168,875	52,468	304,669
Schools offering class theory but farming on commercial basis.....	260,292	260,292		229,161
Schools giving no instruction, but farming on a commercial basis.....	377,850	377,850		93,808

According to this table, there are 85 institutions which at least own land capable of use in agricultural instruction. These schools have 23,940 acres of land, valued at \$1,431,967, with nearly 11,000 acres under cultivation, and agricultural equipment and stock valued at a third of a million dollars. They have in all 1,838 teachers, but only 115 of these are devoting any time to agriculture. The total attendance is 21,462, of whom 6,232 are above the elementary grades.

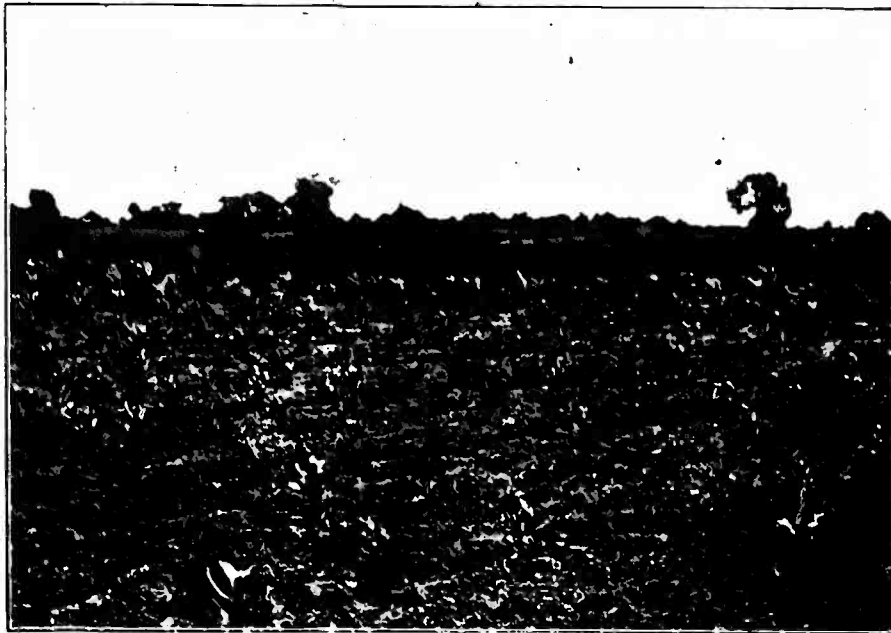
Effort has been made to ascertain the number of pupils who receive instruction in agriculture. The quality and quantity of this instruction vary so greatly in different institutions that any statement of number of students is of little value. On a liberal interpretation of special work, this study shows only about 700 students who have selected agriculture. In view of the fact that the majority of these institutions are using their agricultural equipment ineffectively, it is more important to determine possibilities than the character of the work done. As possibilities are largely dependent on ownership, support, and present equipment, the schools have been divided according to these facts.

The private institutions are 56 in number, divided into four groups, according to size of plant and emphasis on agriculture. Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes, with their extensive equipment and their well-known activities in rural education, constitute the first group. Gen. Armstrong, the founder of Hampton Institute, urged the importance of agricultural education from the very beginning of his work. The wisdom and force of his words on this subject are illustrated by the following quotations from his annual school reports for the years between 1870 and 1890:

The temporal salvation of the colored race for sometime to come is to be won out of the ground.

The Negro race will succeed or fail as it shall devote itself with energy to agriculture and mechanic arts or avoid these pursuits, and its teachers must be inspired with the spirit of hard work and acquainted with the ways that lead to material success.

Teaching and farming go well together in the present condition of things (in the South). The teacher farmer is the man for the times; he is essentially an educator throughout the year.



A. CORN PLANTED BY OLD METHOD.

Yield, 16 bushels per acre.



B. CORN PLANTED TEN DAYS LATER UNDER SCHOOL SUPERVISION.



CORN UNDER SCHOOL SUPERVISION, AT MATURITY.

Yield, 40 bushels per acre.

To put into every State an agricultural school and experiment station open to the colored race and adapted to their especial needs, in direct communication with their leading farmers, spreading through circulars and bulletins, practical information and furnishing stimulus to thousands who now never see anything of the sort—this is a work which should be provided for in any broad, national plan for educational improvement in the South.

Through the efforts of Dr. Frissell, the successor of Gen. Armstrong as principal of Hampton Institute, the spirit of these words has been realized in the present organization and work of the institution. As for Tuskegee, the world knows of the remarkable agricultural campaign carried on by the late Dr. Booker T. Washington.

The smaller private institutions, which constitute the remaining three groups, are divided according to provision for theory and practice on the farms. In the 22 schools offering theoretical courses a few of the pupils have practice in farm work. The value of both the theory and practice differs widely in each institution. With few exceptions, the farm practice has but little relation to the classroom instruction. In the 18 schools of the third group there is not even the pretense of farm practice on an educational basis. The 14 schools in the fourth group maintain farms on a commercial basis, but do not offer any instruction in agriculture.

The public institutions are 29 in number. They include the 16 land-grant institutions, supported largely by Federal funds, and 13 State schools, 6 of which are in Northern States. Practically all of these public institutions offer some theoretical instruction in agriculture, and all but 4 have farm land. The 16 land-grant schools are next to Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes in agricultural possibilities. A few of these schools are making a serious effort to prepare pupils to be farmers. With reorganization of their work and considerable improvement in their teaching force, these schools could fulfill the purpose of the Federal land-grant appropriations and prepare farmers and agricultural teachers. Most of the 13 State schools are smaller than the land-grant institutions. They are primarily teacher-training schools, with provision for courses in the theory and practice of gardening.

The use of student labor on most of the farms of both the public and private institutions is generally regarded as a means of supplementing the pupils' income, rather than as a contribution to agricultural instruction. Only in a few instances is farm work planned for educational ends. While many of the pupils receive considerable instruction through farm labor, there is a tendency to degrade agriculture and rank it as mere drudgery. It is unfortunate that more of these schools do not plan the management of their farms so that student labor will be educational.

Farmers' conferences form a noteworthy agricultural activity of many of these schools. These conferences bring together large numbers of rural people to exchange views on farming, listen to specialists in agriculture, and renew their interest in rural life. The schools are at their best on these occasions. The colored people are good talkers and delight in the opportunity to exchange experiences. It is probable that these conferences have done much to develop genuine interest not only in farm life but also in agricultural education.

The most significant recent developments in the rural education of Negroes have resulted from the cooperation of the State departments of education with the General Education Board, the Jeanes Fund, the Slater Fund, and the Rosenwald rural school building donations. Through this cooperation State supervisors of rural schools have been

appointed in 10 States, and county supervising teachers in 163 counties; 111 modern rural school buildings and 44 county training schools were erected by 1917, and a large number of "home makers" clubs have been organized in a number of Southern States. While these activities have multiplied with remarkable rapidity, their extent is limited as compared with the large field to be covered. Their real significance is not in their extent, but in the promise of future developments. Through the propaganda attending these various movements, both the white and colored people of the South are awakening to a realization of the importance of farming and rural life. It is important to note in this connection that practically all of these activities originated with the group of persons who constituted the Conference for Education in the South.¹

In addition to the Federal funds appropriated to the agricultural and mechanical schools, Federal aid is appropriated for agricultural extension and farm demonstration. This aid is theoretically for both white and colored farmers. The direct benefit which the Negroes derive from such work, however, is largely dependent upon the sentiment of local officials. Part of the appropriations are spent directly for the employment of colored persons as farm demonstration agents and rural workers among colored people. Although the Negroes receive but comparatively little direct benefit from the Federal funds for rural improvement, there is no doubt that some indirect influence extends to them through the white farmers. These funds are supplemented by State and county appropriations. The Federal aid is administered by the Department of Agriculture.

Just before his death, in 1915, Dr. Booker T. Washington made a strong appeal for more Negro demonstration agents. This appeal was vigorously indorsed by a large number of the leading southern papers. One Georgia paper commented editorially as follows:

Diversification is now urged from every quarter. "It is to be hoped that it will be accomplished. But how? Booker Washington, the greatest benefactor of his race in the world to-day, is practical, and is working along practical lines. He points out that all this literature about diversification is not reaching his people on the farms. We have 100,000 Negro farmers in Georgia. Some of these take newspapers, but the vast majority of them do not. The vast majority have no way to get information except by word of mouth. The word of mouth is a little less dependable than the written word, and either is bad enough.

Booker Washington very wisely suggests that there should be Negro teachers or demonstrators in every community, to carry to the Negro farmer the information that the generally more fortunate white farmer gets from literature. These Negro demonstrators should understand their race's eccentricities, their peculiarities, their reasoning or lack of it, and from this intimate knowledge be able to reach them with these lessons on diversification.

Where such Negro agents have been at work, they have produced admirable results. There are 850 counties in the South with a Negro population ranging from 10 per cent to 90 per cent of the total population. Until there is a Negro agent in every one of these counties, southern agriculture will not attain to the rank which it deserves.

MEANS AND METHODS IN RURAL EDUCATION.

Next to the need of a genuine appreciation of the importance of rural education in the development of the colored people and of the South is the demand for a clearly defined program of courses adapted to the age and attitude of the pupils and to the income and general plan of the institution and its teachers. Hitherto the prevailing

¹ Later the "Southern Conference for Education and Industry."

conception of agricultural education seems to have required elaborate courses in theory, a large farm, and extensive equipment both in machinery and stock. The majority of the schools, realizing that they had neither the inclination nor the financial means to undertake such a plan, followed their own desires and devoted their energy to literary courses.

The few schools that were sufficiently interested to try to teach agriculture plunged into the elaborate method outlined and almost all of them failed to realize their purposes. It is not to be understood that this failure means that no good resulted from their efforts. On the contrary, very important gains were made in overcoming the deep dislike for the soil which generations of slavery had developed. Through the elaborate equipment and the complexities of agricultural theory, the Negro youth and his parent began to believe that some education might be obtained in agricultural schools.

It would, therefore, be quite unjust to claim that no good resulted from the elaborate method. The real criticism is that a large number of schools were led to believe the teaching of agriculture to be beyond their financial means and equipment, and that the schools attempting agriculture did so at considerably larger cost than was necessary.

The improvement of rural conditions and the proper cultivation of the soil require at least five types of instruction adapted to the varying needs of the five groups whose interest is to be awakened and directed. These are as follows:

1. Science and practice of gardening for all pupils in rural and urban schools.
2. Science and practice of gardening with instruction in civics, economics, and teacher training, for all secondary pupils and persons preparing to be ministers and teachers.
3. Two-years courses in agriculture to prepare farmers for the cultivation of the usual 30 or 40 acre farm.
4. Four-years courses for those desiring to be agricultural teachers, farm demonstrators or managers of large farms.
5. Rural extension activities for the entire community.

The needs of the pupils and the limited school equipment of a majority of the colored schools admit of only one, or at most two, of these courses.

SCIENCE AND PRACTICE OF GARDENING IN RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS.

No phase of agricultural instruction has been so much neglected as gardening. The propaganda for country life and agriculture in America seems to have overlooked the garden, and to have left it to the whims of the suburban soil enthusiast. No phase of soil-culture has such a variety of important possibilities as gardening. These possibilities include the economic returns of the home garden, both in town and country, and especially its use to supplement the salary of the rural teacher and minister. They include the educational value of the garden as an elementary school activity, as an illustration of intensive agriculture, as a laboratory for agricultural schools, and as the recruiting field in which pupils may be introduced to the wonders of soil-culture, and thus won for service in rural life. Furthermore, gardening has unique value in the cultivation of character, both in the individual and in the family. This social value is attained by the union of the family in the planting and cultivation, by exchange and cooperation with the neighbors similarly engaged, and by the development of

marketing skill and habits of saving small earnings. As a suggestion of the essentials of a course in vegetable gardening for rural and urban schools, the following statement has been prepared by the United States Bureau of Education:

Children in the primary grade should have projects consisting of the growing of some vegetables in the home garden. The children in the first grade should plant radish in the spring, snap beans in the summer, and onion sets in the late fall and winter. The children in the second grade should plant mustard in the spring, tomatoes in the summer, and spinach in the late fall and winter. The children in the third grade should plant lettuce in the spring, corn in the summer, and cabbage in the late fall and winter. These projects should become a regular part of the grade work and should be measured by the same standards as the other school activities.

Children in the elementary grades should be required to have a vegetable garden at least 20 by 20 feet either at home or in a nearby vacant lot. To insure the best results, it would be necessary for a teacher to visit each garden at least once a week and direct the work. Children fail as gardeners when the problem of plant growth becomes so complex that interest is lost. Through the raising of vegetables, the children should learn from the teacher how to manage soil, how to plant, cultivate, and harvest the vegetables so as to get the best results, as well as how to keep accurate records of garden expenditures and receipts. The success of the garden will depend upon the accuracy and thoroughness with which the following garden rules are practiced:

1. Location: The vegetable garden should be located where the plants will receive sufficient sunlight and air.
2. Soil: The soil should be deep, rich, mellow, and well drained.
3. Seeds: Only the best vegetable seeds, purchased from reliable seedsmen, should be planted.
4. Plants: All vegetable plants, such as cabbage, lettuce, tomatoes, pepper, and egg plant, etc., should be grown, not purchased.
5. Fertilizer: Three applications of commercial fertilizer should be made at intervals during the growing season, rather than one application of the entire amount.
6. Cultivation: The soil between the rows should be kept well hoed. The garden should be free of weeds.
7. Intensive gardening: Every square foot of garden space should be used and "companion crops" should be planted whenever possible. As soon as one crop is harvested, another should be planted. All paths and weeds must be eliminated.
8. Harvesting: No vegetable should be allowed to go to waste. What can not be used fresh by the family should be sold or canned.
9. Seasons: All-year gardening should be practiced.
10. Records: Accurate record of expenditures and receipts should be kept, as well as the dates of planting and of harvesting each crop.

Class-room lessons in soil and plant requirements should accompany the home garden operations.

While the elementary pupils will be much helped by the course outlined above, it is only a beginning in real rural education. What is needed is outlined by Herbert Quick, member of the Federal Farm Loan Board, in his novel, *The Brown Mouse*. The story is an account of the difficulties of a rural teacher who endeavors to adapt school work to the needs of the pupils. One part of the story describes the public trial of this country teacher by the county superintendent. The trial is in the home district, and in truly home fashion the woman superintendent is called "Jennie" and the teacher is called "Jim." The final scenes of this trial present a vivid picture both of the ideals of a modern rural school and the misunderstandings that attend the effort to realize these ideals.

By the time at which gathering darkness made it necessary for the bailiff to light the lamps the parties had agreed on the facts. Jim admitted most of the allegations. He had practically ignored the textbooks. He had burned the district fuel and worn out the district furniture early and late

and on Saturdays. He had introduced domestic economy and manual training to some extent by sending the boys to the workshops and the girls to the kitchens and sewing rooms of the farmers who allowed those privileges. He had used up a great deal of time in studying farm conditions. He had induced the boys to test the cows of the district for butter-fat yield. He was studying the matter of a cooperative creamery. He hoped to have a blacksmith shop on the schoolhouse grounds sometime, where the boys could learn metal working by repairing the farm machinery and shoeing the farm horses. He hoped to install a cooperative laundry in connection with the creamery. He hoped to see a building sometime, with an auditorium where the people would meet often for moving-picture shows, lectures, and the like, and he expected that most of the descriptions of foreign lands, industrial operations, wild animals—in short, everything that people should learn about by seeing, rather than reading—would be taught the children by moving pictures accompanied by lectures. He hoped to open to the boys and girls the wonders of the universe which are touched by the work on the farm. He hoped to make good and contented farmers of them, able to get the most out of the soil, to sell what they produced to the best advantage, and at the same time to keep up the fertility of the soil itself. And he hoped to teach the girls in such a way that they would be good and contented farmers' wives. He even had in mind as a part of the schoolhouse the Woodruff District would one day build an apartment in which the mothers of the neighborhood would leave their babies when they went to town, so that the girls could learn the care of infants.

"An' I say," interposed Con Bonner, "that we can rest our case right here. If that ain't the limit, I don't know what is!"

"Well," said Jennie, "do you desire to rest your case right here?"

Mr. Bonner made no reply to this, and Jennie turned to Jim.

"Now, Mr. Irwin," said she, "while you have been following out these very interesting and original methods, what have you done in the way of teaching the things called for by the course of study?"

"What is the course of study?" queried Jim. "Is it anything more than an outline of the mental march the pupils are ordered to make? Take reading: why does it give the children any greater mastery of the printed page to read about Casablanca on the burning deck, than about the cause of the firing of corn by hot weather? And how can they be given better command of language than by writing about things they have found out in relation to some of the sciences which are laid under contribution by farming? Everything they do runs into numbers, and we do more arithmetic than the course requires. There isn't any branch of study—not even poetry and art and music—that isn't touched by life. If there is we haven't time for it in the common schools. We work out from life to everything in the course of study."

"Do you mean to assert," queried Jennie, "that while you have been doing all this work which was never contemplated by those who have made up the course of study, that you haven't neglected anything?"

"I mean," said Jim, "that I'm willing to stand or fall on an examination of these children in the very textbooks we are accused of neglecting."

GARDENING AND ECONOMICS IN HIGHER SCHOOLS.

In view of the large proportion of colored people in rural districts and on farms, it is evident that every secondary school and every private and higher institution should make it possible for pupils to appreciate the economic and social significance of gardening and soil cultivation, to know the relation of soil to soul, to know that farming is not mere drudgery, but the source of culture as well as prosperity. Such is the importance of rural life that the teachers of other subjects should use every opportunity which their subjects offer to arouse interest in the improvement of rural conditions. This applies especially to the teacher of economics and education. For students who are preparing to be teachers or ministers this course should be required just as far as time will permit. For such students knowledge of soil processes means not merely a needed supplement to their meager salaries, but, what is much more significant, a point of contact with the people. It is probable that the future of rural districts will be largely

determined by the teacher and the preacher with a genuine and an intelligent interest in the soil and its possibilities. Even the prospective medical student would do well to obtain this broad view of agriculture before he enters on his medical course.

The following course has been prepared by the United States Bureau of Education. The course should be required of every pupil and should cover five periods a week for one year and a half. Experience shows that the greatest emphasis should be centered in the actual carrying out of the projects. The class-room instruction should be reduced to the minimum and should only be used to supplement the projects and answer the questions that arise through actual doing of the work. It is especially desirable that pupils living in the neighborhood of the school should work out the projects in their homes. Another important requirement of success in this course is the employment of a teacher who should devote the entire year to the work.

This course should include all the agricultural activities possible on a homestead—vegetable gardening, fruit growing, flower culture both for ornamental and selling purposes, care of chickens, a dairy cow, and swine.

Through vegetable gardening, the students should learn how to plan and manage a twelve months' garden for the intensive production of vegetables. They should be familiar with companion and succession crops and best methods of rotation. They should learn the varieties adapted to season, how to make and manage a hot bed and cold frame, how to manage the soil, how to plant, cultivate, control pests, and harvest both annual and perennial vegetables so as to get the best results.

In the growing of fruit, the students should learn the soil requirements, methods of propagation, cultivation, spraying, harvesting, marketing of such fruits as strawberries, dewberries, raspberries, blackberries, cherries, peaches, quinces, and apples.

Through flower growing, the students should learn how to make and root cuttings such as geranium, roses and hardy shrubs. They should become familiar with annual, biennial, and perennial flowers suitable for home decorations. They should learn how to make and manage hardy flower borders, how to plan and plant front yard.

Through the care of chickens, the students should learn the principles involved in breeding, incubation, brooding; feeding for rearing, egg production and fattening; housing and sanitation; diseases and parasites; and the marketing of products.

The student should learn how to breed, feed, house, and care for a dairy cow in order to produce sanitary milk and butter economically. They should also learn how to raise a calf. In addition, they should learn how to breed, feed, house, and manage swine for economic production of pork, how to cure and market the products.

TWO-YEAR COURSE FOR FARMERS.

The distinctive purpose of the smaller agricultural school is to prepare pupils to become effective small farmers and to assist the local farmers to improve their methods. As a recruiting field for those who plan to be farmers, these schools should require all their pupils to take the essential parts of the courses here outlined. In a majority of the schools these courses will provide an ample amount of science. The important need of the short-course pupils is practice in the various lines of gardening and farming. This practice should be sufficient to enable the pupil to develop some skill in the essential phases of small farming, including the soil, fertilizers, farm crops, animal husbandry, farm machinery, and marketing. One of the most important phases of the training is a real knowledge of simple business principles and methods. This, too, requires practice as a guarantee that the pupil appreciates the significance of the facts acquired.

The greatest difficulty these schools have to contend with is the very limited education and unsatisfactory home training of the pupils who come to them. Many of the

pupils can scarcely read and write, and practically none of them have completed even seven grades of elementary work. In view of this, it is little wonder that both pupils and teachers are opposed to a plan requiring such a large proportion of the time on field practice as to neglect the rudiments of education.

If the elementary school facilities for colored people were satisfactory, it might be wise to urge the type of school known as the "Irish agricultural station school." This type is successfully used in Ireland to give farm training to youths who are 18 years of age and have finished the elementary schools. The school term is 12 months. A pupil remains only one year and receives his board and from \$20 to \$50 for his work. The day is divided into 10 hours on the farm and 3 hours in the night school. The pupils are divided into a farm group and a barn group, so that their hours may be suited to the necessities of each department. Every pupil spends a part of his time in both departments. The majority of those finishing the year's work become farmers. Those with qualifications for further study take an additional year at Albert College, so as to prepare for supervisory farm positions. The few students who are prepared to take a complete college course are sent to the Royal College of Arts and Sciences, where they spend four years in general college studies, including considerable laboratory research and some farm practice. While this plan can not at present be adapted for the colored schools, there are a number of valuable suggestions in it for the future development of the agricultural education of both white and colored people.

COURSE TO PREPARE AGRICULTURAL TEACHERS AND FARM DEMONSTRATORS.

Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute are the only institutions for colored people at present equipped with teachers and plant to offer a complete agricultural course. With reorganization and a more effective teaching force in agriculture, the State agricultural and mechanical schools could be developed so that they would offer ample training for the agricultural teachers of a majority of the colored schools. There are also a few other institutions, such as Tougaloo College in Mississippi, Talladega College in Alabama, and Lincoln Institute in Kentucky, which could easily arrange their organization and their equipment to give a four-year course in the theory and practice of farming.

It is most important that even these larger institutions shall maintain the general course in gardening to be required of all pupils at some time during their stay in the institution. This general course is especially valuable as a recruiting field for the teachers' course. A "short course" of two years should also be provided for the pupils who desire to be farmers but are not able to continue through the four years' work. It is probable that considerable combination of subjects can be made in the various courses.

The first essential of an agricultural school is a farm, operated in such a way as to combine the profitable cultivation of the land with the educational use of student labor. The elements required to realize this important purpose have been outlined by Prof. William Hill, of Bethany, W. Va., as follows:

1. A man with sound ideals of education and business ability who likes to work with his hands and believes that well-directed farm labor has educational value.
2. A farm, conveniently located and moderate in size, so that students may pass from work lessons on the farm to classroom lessons without undue loss of time.
3. Practical equipment similar to that required at the student's farm home.

4. A firm conviction in the minds of teachers and students that doing is more important than talking, so that all will regard farm work as a more significant test of educational advancement than written papers or recitations.

5. Payment of students for farm work on the basis of value of products rather than time spent. Work done for permanent improvement, or for the sake of the appearance of the farm, should not be charged against the crops. Students who are working to supplement their expenses should be tested on appearance work, such as cleaning up and filling gullies.

6. So far as possible, only agricultural students should be employed on the farm, and the work should be so planned and supervised that its educational advantages are realized.

7. So far as possible, only those crops should be produced for which there is a sure market either at the dining hall, in nearby markets, or in the general market for staple cash crops.

8. The buildings, like stock and equipment, should be maintained on an efficient basis.

Agricultural schools are requiring more and more practice in the various phases of farming. The following statement from the prospectus of one of the Massachusetts agricultural schools is an excellent account of "Project study and work."

The course of study is made each year to center on and support one particular branch of farming, so that the work of that year may be in some degree complete in itself, although at the same time it is preparation for the study of succeeding years. By this arrangement an excellent four-years' course is provided, and yet it is possible for a pupil to enter for one, two, or three years, and get full value for his time and effort. Furthermore, each pupil is required to undertake, during the year, a "project" in the productive agriculture about which his studies for the year center; for example, the second year, while studying small animals, it may be the management and caring for a few hives of bees, or of a flock of poultry, or hog raising; hence the terms "project study" and "project work." In this project he makes his plans, carries out his work, does his own financing and marketing, and keeps careful records of the business, all of which is usually done at his own home, but under the direction of an instructor.

The advantages of thus coordinating the practical work and management of a farm project with the classroom and laboratory study may be summed up somewhat as follows:

1. It emphasizes the fact that success in farming, as in any other business, depends not alone upon knowing how, but upon the ability to use one's knowledge—that it is quite largely a matter of careful attention to detail; for example, a boy may know all about a hotbed, and yet in half an hour burn up the results of weeks of labor by neglecting to ventilate when needed.

2. In order to make a profit on his project, he will find it necessary to discriminate between practical and impractical methods of work, and to reduce routine work to a minimum.

3. The pupil is brought face to face with the market and the marketing problems, and thus new emphasis is placed on the teaching that his business must be shaped up to meet the demands of the market.

4. Many farming operations, from the simple setting of plants to the more complex operations of caponizing a cockerel or budding a fruit tree, mean little until skill and facility in the work are acquired by doing it.

5. Questions of fertility, of culture, of insect pests and plant diseases, of feed for stock—in fact, nearly everything the pupil is studying—take on a new interest when incidental to a business enterprise for the success of which he is held responsible.

The following distribution of the projects through a four years' course is recommended:

Projects for the first year.—Vegetable gardening, poultry, practical methods of production, practice in farm bookkeeping.

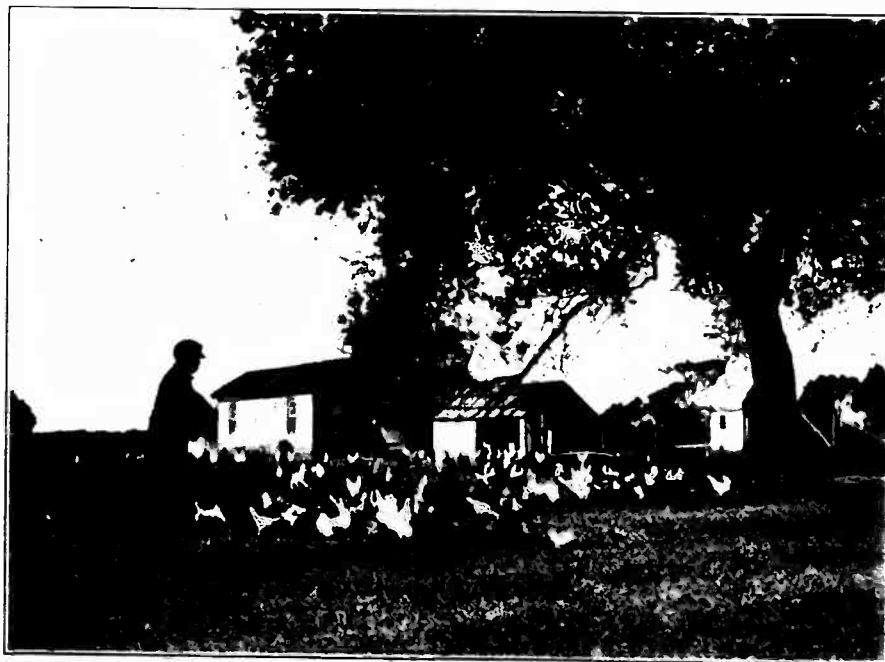
Projects for the second year.—Fruit growing, dairy cattle, dairying, practical methods of production, practice in farm bookkeeping.

Projects for the third year.—Farm crops; swine, sheep, and beef cattle, practical methods of production, practice in farm bookkeeping.

Projects for the fourth year.—Farm crops, horses and mules, practical methods of production, practice in farm bookkeeping.



A. HARVESTING THE SCHOOL CROP.



B. POULTRY RAISING AT THE SCHOOL.



A. CLEAN-UP DAY AT THE SCHOOL.



B. GIRLS LEARNING TO DO REPAIR WORK.

Through the combination of the projects outlined above and the classroom work the following topics should be covered:

Vegetable gardening.—Soil and fertilizer requirements; varieties adapted to seasons and market conditions; tillage and cultivation; making and managing of hot beds and cold frames; companion and succession crops; rotation; control of pests; grading and marketing of products.

Fruit growing.—Methods of propagation; soil and fertilizer requirements; varieties for home and market; tillage and cultivation; pruning; control of pests; picking; grading; packing and marketing.

Farm crops.—Corn, grains, forage plants, sugar, fiber crops and root crops; soil and fertilizer requirements; varieties; testing, judging, improvement, planting and care of crop; rotation; curing and harvesting of crop.

Poultry raising.—Breeds, breeding; judging; incubation; brooding; housing; feeding; diseases and parasites; production and marketing of products.

Dairying.—The care of milk and milk utensils; testing of butter fat; creaming milk of the shallow-pan method and by separator; ripening and churning cream; washing, salting, packing, and marketing butter; cheese making; curing and marketing.

Dairy cattle, sheep, swine, and beef cattle.—Breeds; breeding; judging; housing; feeding; care; management; production and marketing of products.

Horses and mules.—Production; judging; housing; feeding; care; management; training.

A four-year course of instruction should offer not only the science and practice of agriculture but also general science, rural economics and sociology, teacher training, applied mathematics, and English. The following outline is based on the curriculum prepared by R. W. Stimson of the Massachusetts State board of education, and is offered as an illustration of the general features of such a course:

- (1) Fully 50 per cent of the time should be spent in project study and project work, centering on—
 - A. Projects of the pupils.
 - (a) At home, as a rule.
 - (b) At school, rarely.
 - (c) Pupil responsible, but supervised by his instructor.
 - B. Projects of the school.
 - (a) Illustrative of well-proved methods, crops, etc.
 - (b) Trial, as to adaptability of promising methods, crops, etc., to local conditions.
 - (c) School responsible, but uses projects for group instruction of pupils in observation and practice work.
 - C. Substitutes for projects.
 - (a) Work on approved farm, with agreed upon educational duties as cost-accounting, one or more cows or one or more crops.
 - (b) Work on the school farm, with educational duties like the above.
 - (c) Employer chiefly responsible, but supervised by instructor.
- (2) Approximately 30 per cent of the time should be given to "related study," consisting of such close correlation with the project study and project work of the following activities or subjects of instruction as to warrant the prefix "farm" or "agricultural"—

Farm arithmetic, farm biology, farm physics, farm chemistry, farm entomology, farm veterinary science, farm drawing, farm shop work, farm typewriting and filing, farm accounts, farm journal reading, agricultural economics.
- (3) Approximately 20 per cent of the time should be reserved for cultural and good citizenship training in such subjects, as—

English, history, citizenship, government, economics, drawing (freehand and mechanical), hygiene and physical training, music, recreation.

RURAL EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

Schools are recognizing more and more their responsibility to their communities. Numerous forms of activities have been organized to improve rural conditions. Few institutions, even for white people, have equaled Hampton and Tuskegee in extension work. While a number of the colored schools are maintaining neighborhood activities, there is a great need for the increase of all extension efforts in behalf of rural conditions of colored people. The principal forms of these activities that are adapted to the needs of the Negro communities are listed herewith:

1. Farm demonstration work to show the Negro farmer how to use modern methods of cultivating his farm.
2. County supervisors to direct rural teachers in gardening and other phases of soil cultivation.
3. Farmers' institutes to bring together the young people of a community for a few days of instruction in rural methods.
4. Short courses, varying from a few days to three months, for farmers who can not take a regular course.
5. Farmers' conference and fair to assemble neighboring farmers for a day or two of encouragement and guidance in farm work.
6. Boys' and girls' clubs to arouse interest in the simple but vital needs of country life, including the canning of fruits and vegetables, gardening, and crop production.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

In considering the means and methods of agricultural instruction, it is important to realize that efforts of schools are seriously hampered if there is no general program for the improvement of rural conditions. The more important elements of the general problem have been well outlined by Albert Leake in the following statements:

1. A system of education suited to local conditions and to the everyday experiences of country children, thus relating them to the opportunities surrounding them and developing their intellects through a reasonable agricultural and natural history outlook.
2. The adaptation of the education of the boy and girl, from 14 to 19 years of age, toward productive efficiency along agricultural and home-making lines.
3. The training of the adult farmer in methods of soil cultivation and farm management according to scientific principles, and the proper dissemination of the available knowledge on these subjects.
4. A serious consideration of the conditions of the farm home and the work that is carried on therein. Agriculture is a home industry, and the work of the woman plays a more important part in it than in any other industry. The drift from the country to the city is greatly influenced by the conditions of the farm home.
5. The development of sound business methods in all farming operations and the establishment of cooperative methods of farming, distribution of products, and buying of supplies. This entails consideration of the means by which the farmer may fairly obtain money for the extension of his operations.
6. An understanding of the social and economic advantages of good roads and other methods of transportation.
7. A revitalization and redirection of country life, in order that the higher aspirations of farmers may find their satisfaction in the richer life that the country may be made to offer.

VIII. OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL.

The scope of this study was determined, first; by the demand for an evaluation of all grades of private schools for Negroes, and, second, by the desire to include all institutions offering courses above the elementary grades. In order to make the latter group complete, it has been necessary to add public institutions with secondary and higher courses. The following table gives the main facts concerning the more important groups of schools divided on the basis of ownership and control:

COLORLED SCHOOLS, CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.			County attendance.			
	Total.	Larger or important.	Smaller or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College and professional.
All private and higher schools	747	388	359	107,206	80,376	24,189	2,641
Schools under public control	122	122	23,527	9,812	12,662	1,053
Federal schools	1	1	1,401	400	1,001
Land-grant schools	16	16	4,875	2,595	2,268	12
State schools	11	11	2,638	1,466	1,132	40
City high schools	67	67	8,707	8,707
County training schools	27	27	5,906	5,751	155
Schools under private control	625	266	359	83,679	70,564	11,527	1,588
Independent schools	118	46	72	14,851	12,273	1,841	737
Denominational schools	507	220	287	68,828	58,291	9,686	851
Under white boards	354	160	194	51,529	43,605	7,188	736
Under Negro boards	153	60	93	17,299	14,686	2,498	115

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	White.	Negro.		
All private and higher schools	5,851	1,358	4,493	\$4,241,572	\$35,870,125
Schools under public control	1,317	38	1,279	1,215,112	7,373,179
Federal schools	106	33	73	172,257	1,750,920
Land-grant schools	400	400	544,520	2,576,142
State schools	188	2	186	246,834	1,394,547
City high schools	484	3	481	1,200,000	1,500,000
County training schools	139	139	51,501	145,570
Schools under private control	4,534	1,320	3,214	3,026,460	28,496,946
Independent schools	1,144	249	895	1,099,224	12,369,441
Denominational schools	3,390	1,071	2,319	1,927,236	16,127,505
Under white boards	2,562	1,069	1,493	1,546,303	13,822,451
Under Negro boards	828	2	826	380,933	2,305,054

¹ Estimated.

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS.

According to this table the total number of educational institutions, including public high schools and county training schools, is 747. In addition there are 43 special institutions, such as orphanages, hospitals, and reformatories, for which the facts have not been summarized. An account of each of these institutions is given at the end of the State chapters in Volume II. Of the 747 schools, 388 are classified as large or important institutions and 359 as small or less important. The former group includes those that are already rendering valuable educational service to their community and those whose equipment, support, and location give promise of real merit. A few of the institutions in the latter group are fairly well managed, but their work is primarily for denominational rather than educational purposes.

Public institutions.—On the basis of ownership and control, 122 schools are public institutions and 625 are private schools maintained largely by philanthropy. All the public institutions are regarded as important. They are subdivided into five groups according to their financial support.

The one institution classed as Federal is Howard University. This somewhat arbitrary classification of Howard is based upon the fact that over half its annual income is received from Federal appropriation. In origin, as well as in form of organization of the trustee board, however, the institution may properly be termed private.

The 16 "land-grant" schools are maintained jointly by Federal and State appropriations. In a majority of the States the Federal appropriation is considerably larger than that given by the State. This is strikingly true in the "black belt" States. Hampton Institute also receives the Federal grant. These institutions are more appropriately named "State agricultural and mechanical schools for Negroes." Almost all of them were organized as a result of Federal appropriations, to encourage the teaching of agricultural, mechanical, and household arts throughout the country. Every State in the Union has a land-grant or State agricultural and mechanical college. In the 17 Southern States these Federal appropriations are divided between the races.

The 11 State schools offer teacher-training and industrial courses to colored pupils. The States exercise considerable supervision over them and the majority are fairly well managed. Four of the institutions are in Northern States. The following table gives the important facts concerning this group:

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Schools maintained by State funds.

States.	Location of schools.	Counted attendance.				Teachers.*	Income.			Value of property.
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.		Total.	State appropriations.	Other sources.	
Total		2,638	1,466	1,132	40	188	\$246,834	\$218,917	\$27,917	\$1,394,547
Alabama	Montgomery	714	575	139		31	21,500	16,000	5,500	70,000
Kansas	Topeka	82	45	37		14	15,830	12,000	3,830	131,395
Do.	Quindaro	106	27	79		26	38,148	28,766	9,382	195,300
Maryland	Bowie	50	12	38		8	8,053	7,167	886	33,500
New Jersey	Bordentown	93	72	21		18	27,755	27,755		99,159
North Carolina	Elizabeth City	249	181	68		8	6,074	5,300	714	45,000
Do.	Fayetteville	227	174	53		7	5,544	4,069	575	38,700
Do.	Winston-Salem	165	78	87		10	5,258	4,900	358	51,700
Ohio	Wilberforce	231		191	40	20	77,000	77,000		436,893
Virginia	Petersburg	573	282	291		25	27,898	22,000	5,898	233,900
West Virginia	Bluefield	148	20	128		12	13,774	13,000	774	59,000

* All colored except two at Montgomery State Normal School.

The 67 city high schools are administered as a part of the public school systems of the cities in which they are located. Only 21 are in buildings devoted entirely to secondary classes. Three of this group are city normal schools offering two-year courses to graduates of secondary schools.

The 27 county training schools¹ are located in rural communities or small towns and are owned by the public-school authorities. They have been organized through the cooperation of the Slater Fund and the General Education Board with the county officials. Their purpose is to arouse a county-wide interest in the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools.²

They usually have eight grades with special courses in gardening, household work, and manual training. The grade of instruction is being advanced as rapidly as the pupils are completing the lower grades. These schools are being established every year and 17 more have been opened since the facts for the 27 were gathered.

Private Educational Institutions.—The schools under private control number 625. Of these, however, 359 are small or less important schools. The institutions owned and managed by independent boards of trustees number 118 and those owned and maintained by denominational boards total 507. Of the denominational schools, 354 are owned by religious denominations whose membership is largely composed of white people and 153 are owned and supported by colored denominations.

ATTENDANCE.

The total attendance in private and higher institutions for colored, including public high schools and county training schools is 107,206. Of these 80,376 are elementary, 24,189 secondary, and 2,641 are collegiate and professional. The public institutions have an attendance of 23,527 pupils, of whom 9,812 are elementary, 12,662

¹ In 1917 this number had already increased to 44.² For a description of the work of these schools, see p. 37.

secondary, and 1,053 collegiate and professional. It is noteworthy that all but 52 of the college students in public institutions are in Howard University, maintained largely by Federal appropriations. There are 83,679 pupils in attendance at the private institutions, 70,564 elementary, 11,527 secondary, and 1,588 of collegiate grade.

TEACHERS AND WORKERS.

The total number of teachers and workers in the private and higher schools for colored people is 5,851, of whom 1,358 are white and 4,493 or 76.8 per cent are colored. The teachers in the public institutions are 1,317, and practically all of them are colored. In the private institutions there are 4,534 teachers, of whom 1,320 are white and 3,214 or 70 per cent colored. Of the 1,144 teachers in the independent schools, 895 or 78 per cent are colored. In the institutions under white denominational boards, the teachers and workers number 2,562, of whom 1,069 are white and 1,493 or 58 per cent are colored.

Table I in the appendix analyzes the teachers as regards sex and class of work. According to this table the proportion of male teachers in these institutions is 38 per cent, varying from 30 per cent in the institutions under white boards to 62 per cent in the public institutions. The groups with the larger proportions of colored teachers also have the larger percentages of male teachers.

This table also shows that 67 per cent of the teachers and workers are in the academic or literary classes and the others are industrial and agricultural teachers or general workers. In the land grant and State schools the academic teachers constitute about 50 per cent of the total. The academic teachers in the private institutions are 70 per cent of the total number of workers, varying from 50 per cent in the independent schools to 89 per cent in the the schools under colored denominations.

ANNUAL INCOME.

The annual income for current expenses in the private and higher schools for Negroes is four million and a quarter (\$4,241,572). Nearly a million and a quarter (\$1,215,112) is spent in public institutions and about three million (\$3,026,460) is given by churches and philanthropic individuals for the maintenance of the private schools. Of the private funds the independent schools received \$1,099,224 from general donations, institutions under white denominational boards received \$1,546,303, and institutions under colored denominational boards received \$380,933. Annual expenditure per pupil varies widely among the groups. The per capita for all institutions is about \$40; it is \$22 for the schools under colored boards, \$30 for those under white boards, \$73 for the independent institutions, and about \$100 for the State and land-grant groups.

The groups represented in this comparison differ so widely in organization and purpose that no inference as to efficiency or quality of work can be based on these per capita sums. The figures merely indicate the amount of money available for the education of each pupil. Some of the institutions are only day schools offering classroom instruction without laboratories; some are maintaining industrial and agricultural departments; and some are boarding schools with educational activities going on at all hours. Even though the boarding expenses have been eliminated from these expenditures, the numerous forms of educational work made possible in a boarding school add much to the total cost.

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VALUE OF PROPERTY.

The total value of property in the private and higher schools for Negroes is almost thirty-six million dollars (\$35,870,125). The public institutions are valued at seven and a third million (\$7,373,179) and the private at twenty-eight and a half million (\$28,496,946). On the basis of these figures, therefore, 80 per cent of all educational institutions for Negroes above the elementary grade are owned by church boards and private boards of trustees.

Of the twenty-eight and a half million dollars invested in private institutions, twelve and a third million (\$12,369,441), or 42 per cent, is held by independent institutions and a little over sixteen million (\$16,127,505) is owned by the denominational boards. The property of the white boards is valued at almost fourteen million dollars (\$13,822,421), or 85 per cent of that of all denominational schools; that of the colored boards is valued at two and a third million (\$2,305,054).

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

The foregoing analysis of ownership groups suggests the following conclusions concerning the private and higher schools for colored people:

1. That the public facilities, while inadequate, offer genuine promise for the future.
2. That the private institutions, denominational and independent, constitute a strikingly large proportion of the secondary schools and provide practically all of the college and professional facilities for Negro youth.
3. That the contributions of the churches in money, mind, and spirit have been and still are most essential to the welfare of the Negro race and the development of an effective system of education.
4. That while the increasing participation of the colored people in their own education is hopeful and democratic, it should be fully realized that the effective education of the Negro people still requires the liberal financial aid of white people and the active influence of white teachers.

The complete statistics for the ownership groups and for the individual schools will be found in the appendix of this volume. Proper appreciation of the land-grant, independent, and denominational schools requires further discussion of the organization and administration of each of these groups.

LAND-GRANT OR STATE AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL SCHOOLS.

ORIGIN AND FINANCIAL STATUS.

The purposes for which the land-grant institutions receive Federal appropriations are clearly outlined in the following extracts from the various congressional acts granting public lands and making appropriations for their support:

Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862.—An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts.—The leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life.

Morrill Act of 1890.—An act to apply a portion of the proceeds of the public lands to the more complete endowment and support of the colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts.—To be applied only to instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science, with special reference to their applications in the industries of life, and to the facilities for such instruction. *Provided*, That in any State in which there has been one college established in pursuance of the act of July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and also in which an educational institution of like character has been established, or may be hereafter established, and is now aided by such State from its own revenue, for the education of colored students in agriculture and the mechanic arts, however named or styled, or whether or not it has received money heretofore under the act to which this act is an amendment, the legislature of such State may propose and report to the Secretary of the Interior a just and equitable division of the fund to be received under this act between one college for white students and one institution for colored students established as aforesaid, which shall be divided into two parts and paid accordingly, and thereupon such institution for colored students shall be entitled to the benefits of this act and subject to its provisions, as much as it would have been if it had been included under the act of eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and the fulfillment of the foregoing provisions shall be taken as a compliance with the provision in reference to separate colleges for white and colored students.

Nelson amendment of 1907.—An act making appropriations for the Department of Agriculture.—That said colleges may use a portion of this money for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts.

Rulings and instructions relative to the acts of Congress of August 30, 1890, and March 4, 1907, in aid of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.—"To be applied only to instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science, with special reference to their applications in the industries of life, and to the facilities for such instruction" and "for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts." It is held that this language authorizes the purchase from this money of apparatus, machinery, textbooks, reference books, stock, and material used in instruction, or for the purposes of illustration in connection with any of the branches enumerated, and the payment of salaries of instructors in said branches only; but in case of machinery (such as boilers, engines, pumps, etc.) and farm stock, which are made to serve for both instructional and other purposes, the Federal funds may be charged with only an equitable portion of the cost of said machinery and stock.

The acts prohibit the expenditure of any portion of these funds for the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings under any pretense whatever, and the salaries of purely administrative officers, such as treasurers, presidents, secretaries.

In accordance with these acts, 17 institutions for Negroes in the Southern States are receiving Federal funds. The principal facts for 16 of these institutions are shown in the table herewith. Hampton Institute is classified with the independent institutions because its financial support is very largely from private sources. The total annual income for the current expenses of the 16 institutions is \$544,520. Of this amount \$263,074 is received from State appropriations and \$259,851 from the Federal acts. Including the Federal grant to Hampton Institute, the total of Federal appropriations is \$286,817. The value of property in the 16 institutions is \$2,576,142.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 24.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE, TUSKEGEE, ALA.

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SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY LAND-GRANT FUNDS.

State.	Location of schools.	Counted attendance.			Teach-ers. ¹	Income.			Value of property.
		Total.	Ele-mentary.	Sec-ondary.		Total.	Land-grant funds.	Other sources.	
Total		4,875	2,505	2,268	400	\$544,520	\$259,851	\$284,669	\$2,576,142
Alabama	Normal	264	179	85	27	29,209	22,605	6,514	182,500
Arkansas	Pine Bluff	170	130	40	12	24,003	13,636	10,367	141,456
Delaware	Dover	71		71	8	13,159	10,000	3,159	42,150
Florida	Tallahassee	2,345	185	148	34	34,168	25,193	8,975	131,421
Georgia	Savannah	390	280	110	21	25,369	16,667	8,702	68,449
Kentucky	Frankfort	234	108	126	19	22,327	8,505	13,822	156,700
Louisiana	Baton Rouge	160	102	58	23	31,384	21,102	10,282	95,250
Maryland	Princess Anne	123	38	85	12	15,528	10,000	5,528	44,950
Mississippi	Alcorn	484	337	147	24	47,774	36,774	11,000	258,500
Missouri	Jefferson City	264	122	142	33	42,162	3,125	39,037	226,375
North Carolina	Greenboro	150	60	90	26	32,518	16,500	16,018	129,700
Oklahoma	Langston	408	219	189	28	46,400	10,400	36,000	153,827
South Carolina	Orangeburg	726	529	197	33	44,216	30,754	13,462	297,300
Tennessee	Nashville	300	119	181	25	39,819	12,000	27,819	193,915
Texas	Prairie View	552	115	437	46	49,985	12,500	37,485	237,200
West Virginia	Institute	234	72	162	29	46,499	10,000	36,499	216,449

¹ All colored.² Includes 12 pupils of college grade at Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College.

All of these institutions receive appropriations under the acts of 1890 and 1907. Only the land-grant schools for the Negroes of Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Virginia receive any portion of the funds appropriated under the act of 1862. Georgia appropriates \$8,000 annually for the colored agricultural and mechanical school "in lieu of any claim of the colored population of the State upon the proceeds of the agricultural land scrip donated by Congress in 1862." No other appropriation is made by the State toward the current expenses of the institution. As the Federal funds are given for the teaching of subjects pertaining to agriculture and mechanic arts, it has been necessary for the States to provide funds for administration and general education. Unfortunately, the State appropriations have been so meager in a number of instances as seriously to hamper the proper use of the Federal appropriations. In Maryland and Virginia the land-grant institutions for Negroes receive their supplementary support from private sources and the State appropriations are used to maintain State institutions.

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL.

While the financial support of these institutions by State and Federal Government gives them a peculiarly favorable position in the educational activities of their State, ineffective administration and inadequate State aid have made it impossible for many of them to take advantage of their position. The Federal Government has suffered both from lack of machinery to supervise its appropriations and also from a feeling that the management belongs primarily to the States. The large majority of the States, however, lack both machinery and interest and a number of them make but small appropriations to supplement the Federal funds. The result has been that the administration of most of the institutions has been left to the colored presidents of the institutions and boards of white trustees whose educational interest in the Negro has been uncertain.

One of the most important defects observed in the land-grant schools is the lack of adequate systems of accounts and records. Proper administration of all institutions requires a simple but comprehensive record of both financial transactions and student activities. These are especially necessary in institutions offering not only academic instruction but also agricultural and mechanical courses. At present very few of these schools have good systems of records. Almost all the presidents now realize the importance of such records and will gladly introduce them whenever the States appropriate the funds to maintain the system. There is no doubt that the money saved through an effective system of accounts would pay the cost many times. Certainly the educational value would be very great.

Another defect that is almost universal is the policy of operating the boarding department on a private basis. In a number of cases the president or some one related to him manages this department as a commercial enterprise. There are numerous objections to such an arrangement. The practical difficulty is usually in the impossibility of separating private from public expenses in the purchase of supplies and equipment. The most serious objection, however, is in the failure to use the boarding activities for educational purposes. The educational possibilities of a boarding department conducted by and for the school are among its most valuable educational assets.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION.

The extracts from the Federal acts cited on page 119 make it clear that the Federal funds are "to be applied only to instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science, with special reference to their applications in the industries of life and also for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts." In view of the large proportion which the Federal money forms of the total income of these institutions, their special function should be the advancement of the agricultural and industrial education of the Negroes in their respective States. With Hampton and Tuskegee Institutes they are the chief agencies for the preparation of agricultural and industrial teachers for colored schools.

Table II¹ shows that the counted attendance for the land-grant institutions was 4,875. Of these 2,595 were elementary pupils, 2,268 secondary, and 12 of college grade. The total number of teachers was 400. These teachers were all colored; there were 266 men and 134 women; 171 were academic teachers, 115 were industrial, 38 agricultural, and 76 were engaged in administration and other forms of school work. Practically all of the institutions have considerable industrial equipment and farm land.

The proportion of industrial and agricultural teachers and the school equipment indicate that these schools are endeavoring to carry out the purposes of the Federal funds. Most of them are fairly well equipped to teach carpentry, blacksmithing, brick masonry, and printing, and to train girls in household arts. Only a few of the schools teach trades effectively, however. In the majority of institutions the time allowed for industrial courses is very limited; the projects undertaken are in the nature of manual training rather than trade instruction.

¹ P. 111.

Though preparation for rural life is much more important to the colored people than either literary or trade courses, the instruction in agriculture is the least effective of all the work offered. Most of the schools have large farms and some equipment, but very few of them are making educational use of either land or equipment. Very few pupils are specializing in agriculture in any of the 16 institutions, and only 38 teachers and workers are devoting their time to agricultural instruction.

The efforts of these institutions to conform to the purposes of the land-grant acts have been seriously hindered by at least three conditions. The first of these is the inadequacy of State funds needed to administer the institution as well as to maintain courses for the general instruction of the pupils. The result is a constant temptation to use the Federal funds for these purposes. The lack of administrative facilities makes possible inefficient work in all directions. The lack of funds is emphasized by the fact that practically none of these schools have facilities for teaching agriculture equal to those of the good county agricultural schools such as are found in some of the States. The second influence tending to limit the purposes of the land-grant acts is the strong desire of the colored people for literary education and the indifference of many of their leaders to both industrial and agricultural instruction. They believe that the State should maintain at least one institution of collegiate grade for the general education of the colored people. As the land-grant schools are the public institutions of highest grade in the State, the colored people are of the opinion that the courses in these institutions should be general rather than agricultural and mechanical. The presidents of a large number of these schools, conscious of this feeling, are endeavoring both to satisfy the demands of the colored people for general education and conform to the laws for which the Federal funds have been given. The result is a serious limitation of the agricultural and mechanical phases of education. The third hindrance to the effective development of these institutions is the necessity of maintaining elementary grades. This results from the inadequate public-school facilities in many of the States.

NEEDS OF THE LAND-GRANT SCHOOLS.

In view of the possibilities of the land-grant schools as the official agencies of both the State and Federal Governments, the following statement of needs is suggested as a basis for the effective development of these institutions:

1. That sufficient State funds be appropriated to make the administration effective and to supply the essentials of a general education.
2. That the educational policy of the school be in accord with the purposes outlined by the Federal land-grant acts of 1890 and 1907.
3. That the preparation of teachers for the public schools be made a vital part of the school program.
4. That an adequate system of cost accounting be installed and an annual audit made by an accredited accountant.
5. That the boarding departments be maintained by the schools and utilized in the household arts instruction.

SCHOOLS WITH INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES.

The independent schools, each owned and managed by a separate board of trustees, include the extremes of good and bad management. The total number of these institutions is 118, of which 46 are classified in this report as large or more important and 72 as small or less important. The annual income for current expenses is one million dollars (\$1,099,224). The total value of property is twelve and a third million (\$12,369,441). Of this almost six million (\$5,714,062) is in school plants, and six million (\$5,964,426) is in endowment. On the basis of annual income, 6 of the 46 larger schools have incomes exceeding \$30,000 a year, 6 have incomes ranging from \$15,000 to \$30,000, 12 have incomes between \$5,000 and \$15,000, and 22 have annual incomes under \$5,000. The 72 smaller schools have an average annual income of \$1,200. Figures for these schools are summarized in the table herewith.

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	118	46	72	14,851	12,273	1,841	737	1,144	249	895	\$1,099,224	\$12,369,441
Alabama.....	23	11	12	4,887	4,415	472		331	23	308	369,544	4,279,566
Arkansas.....	2		2	70	70			2		2	1,100	3,700
Delaware.....	2		2	22	22			4		4	5,250	18,000
Florida.....	3	2	1	234	234			24		24	19,158	85,875
Georgia.....	21	6	15	2,654	2,227	383	44	97	29	68	72,888	493,673
Kentucky.....	3	1	2	177	122	55		19	8	11	20,351	529,698
Louisiana.....	7	2	5	702	671	31		34		34	10,831	118,037
Maryland.....	3		3	38	38			3		3	1,385	2,750
Mississippi.....	4	4		858	823	35		58		58	33,618	314,220
Missouri.....	1	1		19	19			6		6	2,837	38,500
North Carolina.....	9	3	6	597	537	60		55		55	18,389	120,000
South Carolina.....	11	4	7	1,012	954	58		84	3	81	51,235	416,205
Tennessee.....	3	2	1	1,061	112	256	693	78	33	45	103,305	733,058
Texas.....	4	2	2	363	317	46		23		23	10,364	42,000
Virginia.....	11	4	7	1,685	1,257	428		250	147	109	321,660	4,414,459
Northern States.....	11	4	7	472	455	17		70	6	64	57,309	759,100

ATTENDANCE AND TEACHERS.

The number of pupils in attendance was 14,851, of whom 12,273 were elementary, 1,841 secondary, and 737 were collegiate and professional. Secondary courses are offered in 20 of the larger institutions. The collegiate and professional students are in Meharry Medical College, Fisk University, and Atlanta University. Of the total attendance reported, the 72 smaller schools have 4,404, of whom only 66 are secondary.

The number of teachers and workers in all independent schools was 1,144, of whom 249 were white and 895 were colored; 521 male, 623 female; 558 academic, 222 industrial, 49 agricultural, 315 other workers. The ratio of teachers and workers to pupils indicates that these institutions are fairly well managed. About a fourth of the teachers

in the larger schools are white. The smaller schools are practically all taught by colored workers. On the basis of sex, the workers in the larger institutions are about equally divided. The classification of teachers according to the kind of work shows that about half of them are teaching academic subjects, about a fifth are in the industrial departments, and less than a twentieth are giving instruction in agriculture.

EFFICIENCY OF WORK.

The largest and best known of the independent schools are Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute. Other institutions of national reputation are Fisk University, Atlanta University, and Meharry Medical College. Among the institutions whose influence is limited to the counties of their section, the Calhoun Colored School of Alabama and Penn School of South Carolina are doing excellent work. These two schools have achieved unique success in the adaptation of their activities to the needs of the communities in which they are located. Two schools that are administered with noteworthy success are the Daytona School for Girls in Florida and the Montgomery School for Girls in Alabama. It is interesting to note that these four institutions, calling for special mention, are under the direction of women. There are at least 12 other independent schools that are especially deserving of assistance. A few of the independent schools listed in the table are poorly managed and ineffective. All of these institutions are individually described in Volume II of this report, where the status of each school is given in considerable detail.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

For larger institutions with active, conscientious boards of trustees, there is no doubt that the independent organization ranks next to public control in permanency and general effectiveness. Just as Yale, Harvard, and Columbia are national in scope and permanent in outlook, so, among colored institutions, Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Meharry Medical College, Fisk University and Atlanta University represent a type of organization that is broader in scope and more permanent in outlook than that of any group of schools except those maintained by public funds. A number of the 46 larger institutions of the independent group deserve to be continued on this basis. Many of them, however, probably the majority of them, should ultimately be merged into the public system of education.

For the smaller schools the independent form of organization is very questionable. The majority of the independent schools are not adequately supervised. As a rule it is not possible to form a trustee board of reliable, capable persons for one small school with an income of \$5,000 or less. When such boards have been formed few of the trustees have taken the time to ascertain the condition of the school, much less to determine its place in relation to other educational enterprises. Illustration after illustration might be cited to show the futility of such organizations.

In one instance, which was carefully studied, a capable colored man formed a board of northern men of financial power and business ability to promote a plan that was to improve the Negro community both in education and in economic condition. As the location of the institution was inaccessible, the trustees, who were men of large affairs, intrusted the management of the institution almost entirely to the young colored man. The result was that commercial, personal, and educational finances became almost

hopelessly entangled. Much money was wasted, the educational work was seriously hampered, and the whole plant was saved only through the business skill and patience of one or two of the trustees who were willing to give more than their share of time, money, and mind to the work of the school.

Another school, widely advertised by a principal with oratorical ability, has been receiving liberal aid from the churches of one denomination. According to the advertisement, the school is a very important institution doing a large work for its part of the country. When the work was studied by different persons on several occasions, the attendance was found to be about 50 or 60 children from the neighborhood and about 20 boarders from other communities. The administration was lax, the teaching was not effective, and practically no records of either money or student activities were kept. In the same city there is a denominational school that is well managed and effective. The chief northern advocate of this colored principal is a minister of ability and character whose friendship for the principal made it difficult for him to appreciate the real situation.

Still another instance is that of a white man from a northern philanthropic circle, who claims to be promoting a missionary association which includes schools, churches, and organizations for the improvement of the economic conditions of the Negro. Investigation shows that the white man is the founder and president and his wife the treasurer. One little day school is maintained and the farm and business undertakings are conducted without any missionary intent.

One very plausible colored man with marked ability for advertising himself organized a school that was claimed to surpass all other colored schools. His trustees were colored men of ability, but they had no part in the management. The advisory board of prominent white men were likewise ignorant of the real educational and business management. Under this arrangement the colored principal managed to plunge his school into a large indebtedness, the exact amount of which can not be ascertained, since no adequate records are available. Though the school provided elementary and secondary education for about 50 local pupils and 50 boarders, it failed utterly in the purpose for which it was organized. Through his plausible manners the principal managed to win the friendship of a few northern ministers and some local persons. Most of the latter were creditors. When the collapse came this group aided the principal in strenuous appeals to northern donors and now seem to have succeeded in paying the debt. The past record of this principal in administrative matters and the general educational needs of the colored people are adequate grounds for seriously questioning the soundness of the whole enterprise.

In addition to these illustrations others might be given of absolute frauds, such as those mentioned in the first chapter of Volume II. There are also little one and two teacher schools that exist mainly to furnish a living for the teachers.

RECOMMENDATIONS ON INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS.

All the facts of this study and the illustrations given above point clearly to the wisdom of the following conclusions:

1. That the smaller independent schools, including a number of those classified as the "more important," should be transferred to public or private educational boards as soon as these boards can be persuaded to supervise and maintain them.

2. That the founding of new independent schools should be vigorously discouraged.
3. That every independent institution should have a thorough system of cost accounting and an annual audit by an accredited accountant.
4. That the trustees of all the important institutions working in the same areas should meet to develop a plan of cooperation.

WHITE CHURCH BOARDS MAINTAINING SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES.

To any one inclined to doubt the genuine interest of churches in social problems, a study of private schools for Negroes is enlightening. The extent and character of the educational work done by the white churches are emphatic evidence that these churches have recognized the great opportunity for service in behalf of a struggling people. They have given their money to build and maintain the schools, they have sent their sons and daughters to teach in them, and they have rendered a service to humanity that is destined to receive increasing recognition. Mistakes have been made, the highest efficiency has not always been attained, and the latest ideas in education and administration have not been adopted. With all the mistakes, however, it is probable that the church has never done a more effective work. Certainly no philanthropic organization has ever surpassed the altruism of churches in this endeavor. The white church boards of the South have had some part in these activities, but as yet they are limited to one institution maintained by the Southern Methodist Board at Augusta, Ga., and one school supported by the Southern Presbyterian Board at Tuscaloosa, Ala. There are indications that the southern white churches are now planning a more active and systematic interest in the education and religious life of the colored people.

The chief facts covering institutions maintained by the white church boards are summarized in the following table:

WHITE CHURCH BOARDS MAINTAINING SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE.

Denominational boards.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.			
	Total.	Large or important.	Small less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
Total.....	354	160	194	51,529	43,605	7,188	736
Baptist:							
American Home Missions Society.....	24	24	5,536	3,186	2,100	250
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	1	125	125
Catholic Board of Missions.....	112	7	105	13,507	13,443	64
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	5	3	2	440	400	31
Congregational American Missionary Association.....	20	20	6,922	5,448	1,380	94
Friends Society and other Friends Agencies.....	8	6	2	1,642	1,444	198
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions.....	9	1	8	1,147	1,147
Methodist:							
Freedman's Aid Society.....	18	18	5,059	3,263	1,600	196
Woman's Home Missionary Society.....	12	12	808	755	53
Presbyterian Board of Missions for Freedmen.....	85	32	53	8,915	7,833	930	152
Protestant Episcopal Boards, American Church Institute, and the Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society.....	24	4	14	2,988	2,720	268
United Presbyterian Church Boards of Freedman's Missions.....	15	11	4	2,870	2,470	370	30
Nine small church boards.....	12	6	6	1,570	1,362	194	14

NEGRO EDUCATION.

WHITE CHURCH BOARDS MAINTAINING SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE—continued.

Denominational boards.	Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	2,562	1,069	1,493	\$1,546,303	\$13,822,451
Baptist:					
American Home Mission Society.....	419	139	280	304,861	3,870,744
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	14	11	3	7,746	16,500
Catholic Board of Missions.....	404	384	20	146,821	491,000
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	37	15	22	29,010	184,602
Congregational American Missionary Association.....	383	212	171	235,764	1,733,589
Friends Society and other Friends Agencies.....	96	12	84	63,868	915,900
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions.....	26	13	13	18,319	72,000
Methodist:					
Freedman's Aid Society.....	266	65	201	230,160	2,605,687
Woman's Home Missionary Society.....	74	41	30	42,975	309,500
Presbyterian Board of Missions for Freedmen.....	423	84	339	200,124	2,151,321
Protestant Episcopal Boards, American Church Institute, and the Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society.....	176	12	164	118,526	628,743
United Presbyterian Church Boards of Freedman's Missions.....	166	44	122	88,512	455,600
Nine small church boards.....	81	37	44	58,717	387,205

SCHOOLS, ATTENDANCE, AND TEACHERS.

The total number of schools under the direction of white church boards is 354, of which 160 are classed as "larger or more important" and 194 as "smaller or less important." The annual income for current expenses of these schools is one and a half million (\$1,546,303). The value of property is almost fourteen million (\$13,822,421).

The attendance in these institutions in 1913-14 was 51,529, of whom 43,605 were elementary, 7,188 secondary, and 736 collegiate. The number of teachers and workers was 2,562, of whom 1,069 were white and 1,493, or 58 per cent, were colored. On the basis of sex, 714 were men and 1,848, or 70 per cent, were women. Classification according to character of work shows that 1,917, or 74 per cent, of the teachers are academic, 342 industrial, 31 agricultural, and 273 administrative. Comparison with other groups of schools indicates that those under white boards still retain a considerable fraction of white teachers, that the number of women teachers is rather larger than in other groups, and finally that the proportion of academic instructors is higher than in any group except those under the colored boards.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

There are 10 denominational groups which own and maintain a number of institutions for the education of colored people. Nine other denominations are supporting one or two schools each. Very few of the churches represented by either the larger or smaller of these boards have any considerable proportion of Negroes in their membership. There are other denominations, notably the Unitarians, who have contributed liberally to colored schools without any thought either of increasing their church membership or their control over these schools. The primary purpose of practically all of these organizations

has been the education of the Negroes in America and their preparation for life in a democracy.

In this connection it is interesting to note the religious preference of the Negroes in the United States as compiled by the United States census of 1904. According to this census there were 3,685,097 Negroes in the various denominations. Of these 2,354,789 were enrolled by Baptists, 1,182,131 belonged to various branches of Methodism, and the remaining 148,177, hardly 4 per cent of the total, were distributed among the Catholic, Presbyterian, Christian, Congregational, Episcopalian, and other denominations.

It is probable that the schools of the white boards are more uniformly economical and intelligent in management than any of the other groups of private and higher schools for Negroes. The larger denominations maintain central offices and one or more traveling secretaries whose duties include both the supervision of the schools and the appeal for funds to the supporting churches. This personal supervision, together with regular reports of both financial and educational activities, has developed economy and honesty in the use of funds and some degree of thoroughness in the school work. It must be said, however, that the boards differ very much in the effectiveness of their supervision and that some of them are maintaining schools of doubtful value.

The prevailing limitations of the schools of these boards have been the conservatism of their educational and financial policies and the difficulty of obtaining teachers of ability. Very few of the schools have modern systems of accounting, and the majority of them have been content with the traditional means and methods of education. They have not sufficiently recognized the importance of adapting their educational efforts to the needs of the pupil and the community. Schools have been cramped for equipment, and the teachers have received less than a living wage. Under the pressure of a demand from colored leaders for recognition in the management and teaching force, many of the boards have been too willing to turn over their schools to colored officers and teachers. While it is pure religion and sound democracy to give every possible recognition to the colored people, it is neither religion nor democracy nor wise educational policy for the white people to give of their financial means and neglect to give of their minds and characters as teachers in these institutions. Some of the boards are now recognizing that they have permitted and encouraged a substitution of colored teachers for white teachers to an extent that has not worked for the best interest of colored people. Sound policy requires that the boards spare no effort to obtain the services of the best trained men and women of both races for the important work.

The principal facts concerning these denominational boards and their schools are outlined in the following pages:

BAPTIST BOARDS.

The American Baptist Home Mission Society¹ owns or supervises 24 educational institutions for Negroes in the United States. These institutions are all classed as

¹ White.

² The American Baptist Home Mission Society, 23 East 16th Street, New York, N. Y.; corresponding secretary, H. L. Morehouse; superintendent of education, Gilbert N. Brimer.

Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society, Chicago, Ill.

"larger or more important." According to this classification, all of these schools, whether they are large or small, are rated as an essential part of the educational efforts in behalf of Negroes. In effectiveness of educational work and in administrative efficiency, the general average of the group is very high. Seven of the schools, however, are hindered by the need of better adjustment of their activities to the educational demands of their section.

The Woman's Baptist Home Mission Society owns and maintains Mather Academy, contributes liberally to the support of Spelman Seminary and Hartshorn College, and provides some aid for other schools. So far as the facts could be ascertained, the officers of the society supervise its contributions with considerable thoroughness. It is to be desired that their activities in Negro education be increased, especially in the education of colored girls.

The figures for schools maintained by the American Baptist Home Mission Society and the Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society are summarized herewith:

AMERICAN BAPTIST HOME MISSION SOCIETY.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total	24	24	...	5,536	3,186	2,160	250	419	139	280	\$304,861	\$3,870,744
Alabama	1	1	...	268	161	107	...	21	1	20	9,479	83,000
Arkansas	1	1	...	313	181	119	13	18	...	18	15,109	90,000
Florida	1	1	...	404	318	86	...	18	...	18	8,070	80,158
Georgia	5	5	...	1,287	760	478	49	106	50	56	81,573	621,624
Kentucky	1	1	...	130	86	44	...	15	1	14	11,308	60,000
Louisiana	2	2	...	572	435	133	4	26	10	16	16,356	462,000
Mississippi	1	1	...	310	222	88	...	16	...	16	11,591	100,000
Missouri	1	1	...	66	23	43	...	11	...	11	4,486	20,000
North Carolina	3	3	...	419	228	145	46	46	14	32	41,051	433,251
South Carolina	1	1	...	507	454	208	45	30	18	12	21,384	635,744
Tennessee	2	2	...	242	102	140	...	31	...	31	9,942	117,500
Texas	1	1	...	371	176	153	42	22	12	10	19,247	314,935
Virginia	3	3	...	537	221	265	51	36	21	15	37,684	630,354
West Virginia	1	1	...	110	19	91	...	23	12	11	17,581	222,178

WOMAN'S AMERICAN BAPTIST HOME MISSION SOCIETY.

Total	1	1	...	125	125	14	11	3	\$7,746	\$16,500
South Carolina	1	1	...	125	125	14	11	3	7,746	16,500

The annual income for current expenses of the 24 schools is \$304,861, of which \$150,637 is received from the board. On the basis of income, 5 of the schools have incomes between \$1,500 and \$5,000; 10 between \$5,000 and \$15,000; 6 between \$15,000 and \$30,000; and 2 have incomes of over \$30,000. The total property is valued at \$3,870,744, of which about three and a third million is in plant and almost half a million

in endowment. Only one school has a valuation under \$10,000; three schools have valuations between \$10,000 and \$25,000; four between \$25,000 and \$50,000; seven between \$50,000 and \$150,000; three between \$150,000 and \$250,000; and six over \$250,000.

Attendance and teachers.—The attendance in these schools in 1913-14 was 5,536, of whom 3,186 were elementary, 2,100 secondary, and 250 collegiate. All the schools maintain elementary classes, and all but two have secondary pupils. Seven of the institutions are offering instruction in college subjects. Two of the seven, however, had neither the equipment nor teachers to maintain college work. The number of teachers is 419, of whom 139 are white and 280, or 66 per cent, are colored; 148 are men and 271, or 65 per cent, are women; and 296, or 70 per cent, are academic teachers.

These percentages for the color, sex, and work of the teachers indicate that the Baptist Society is following an average course in the selection of its workers and the arrangement of the school program. The high grade of colored officers and teachers now in charge of some of the Baptist Society schools indicates that the transfer from white to colored management has usually been made with considerable care. It is to be hoped, however, that further changes in this direction will be permitted only after thorough consideration of the importance of maintaining the influence of white officers and teachers in these institutions, so that the contact of races may be genuine and helpful. While the proportion of women in the teaching force is fairly large, it is no larger than in similar schools for white youth. This disproportion of women teachers is probably explained by the fact that the limited income does not make it possible to pay the higher salaries for men. A larger number of the male sex in the teaching force would strengthen the influence of these institutions on the boys and young men in attendance. The distribution of teachers as regards type of work shows a very strong emphasis on the literary phases of education. The ancient languages hold a prominent place in the curriculum of a large number of these schools. Of the 419 teachers and workers, only 42 are offering industrial courses and 7 are teaching agriculture or gardening. For a people 80 per cent rural, this proportion of agricultural teachers is clearly not adequate.

History and administration.—The history of the work of the American Baptist Home Mission Society in the South begins with the following resolution passed by its executive committee in 1862:

Resolved, That we recommend the society to take immediate steps to supply with Christian instruction, by means of missionaries and teachers, the emancipated slaves—whether in the District of Columbia or in other places held by our forces—and also to inaugurate a system of operations for carrying the Gospel alike to free and bond throughout the whole southern section of our country, so fast and so far as the progress of our arms and the restoration of law and order shall open the way.

From that day to the present time the society has worked unceasingly for the education and religious development of the colored people. Some measure of the remarkable success achieved in these 50 years of service is given in the educational institutions described in this report. The efforts of the society have doubtless been strengthened by the consciousness of a certain responsibility for the colored Baptists, who constitute such a large proportion of the membership of all colored churches. While this large proportion of Baptists has given the Home Mission Society some advantages, it has also given rise to many perplexing problems of administration. These difficulties

have usually originated in the desire of the colored Baptists to exercise authority in the management of the schools.

In some States, notably in Texas, Georgia, and Virginia, the differences have resulted in the formation of two State conventions of colored Baptists. In these three States one convention contributes to the institution owned by the Home Mission Society and the other supports one or more schools which have been organized to satisfy the demands of colored Baptists who are eager to control church schools. The Baptist schools under colored control are described elsewhere. Practically all of them are suffering seriously from lack of funds and poor management. There are now some indications that these unfortunate divisions will be reconciled so that the Baptist schools may cooperate for the good of all.

The names of the men and women who gave many years of faithful service would constitute a list too long to be entered here. Two of those whose wisdom has directed the policies in recent years should be mentioned. Dr. H. L. Morehouse belongs to the past as well as to the present. He began as secretary of the society in 1879 and has continued until the present time. Dr. George Sale was superintendent of education for several years until his death in 1912 and exerted a notable influence on the educational methods of the institutions under his direction.

Auditor's report on accounting methods.—The following quotation from the report of a chartered accountant shows how carefully the affairs of the society are administered:

The methods are very thorough in ascertaining the requirements of the schools, appropriating to such as can be supplied and disbursing the funds appropriated as needed; also in approving the erection of buildings, the buying or selling of land, appointing teachers, and controlling permanent funds.

The minor changes suggested by the accountant are indicated herewith:

A special system of accounting is used in all schools supported, and while it answers the requirements of the society, we do not see how it can meet all the needs of principals in operating their schools. Two books are supplied, but others must be kept in order to prepare the items for entry in these final books. One loose-leaf ledger would be better than the two books used, and this would permit of a more complete classification of the accounts in the larger schools. With regard to an annual report for each school: No restriction is placed on the amount of donations solicited by the principals, and it would seem advisable that these be acknowledged by name and amount as part of the annual financial report to the public.

It would seem desirable to have a more complete record of the movable equipment of the schools. Inventories should be on file, otherwise an insurance claim for part loss of the contents of a building would have to be settled in an arbitrary manner.

Recommendation.—1. That the society shall not yet reduce its financial aid for the education of colored people. While every effort should be made to prevail upon the public-school authorities and the colored people to take over as much as possible of the educational work, the time has not come when the aid of the Home Mission Society may wisely be diminished.

2. That a systematic effort be made to increase the adaptation of the curriculum of every institution to the needs of pupils and communities and especially to avoid duplication with other institutions.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.¹

The various organizations of the Catholic Church own and maintain seven schools rated as "larger or more important" and 105 "smaller or less important" schools. The larger schools are in Alabama, Delaware, Mississippi, and Virginia. Their educational work is effective. Some of them provide boarding facilities. The smaller schools are church parochial schools, found in all parts of the Southern States, but especially in Louisiana and Mississippi.

The increase of school missions has been marked during the past 10 years. In Georgia schools have been located in Savannah, Augusta, Atlanta, and Macon since 1907. The Georgia work has been done by a French order. The schools in northern Mississippi are under the direction of an order of German origin. Those in Louisiana and southern Mississippi are partly French.

A summary of the statistics for the schools maintained by the Catholic Board of Missions is given herewith:

CATHOLIC BOARD OF MISSIONS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Larger or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	112	7	105	13,507	13,443	64	404	384	20	\$146,821	\$491,000
Alabama.....	9	1	8	885	885	25	25	13,064	25,000
Arkansas.....	3	3	253	253	13	13	4,230
Delaware.....	1	1	80	80	18	15	3	23,000	75,000
District of Columbia.....	2	2	510	510	11	11	2,832
Florida.....	7	7	663	663	17	17	3,330
Georgia.....	7	7	1,170	1,170	23	17	6	4,840
Kentucky.....	6	6	506	506	10	10	2,510
Louisiana.....	25	25	3,142	3,142	83	83	18,304
Maryland.....	4	4	888	888	20	20	5,650
Mississippi.....	13	3	10	1,440	1,433	7	42	42	8,952	56,000
North Carolina.....	6	6	407	400	7	12	12	2,700
Oklahoma.....	2	2	65	65	4	4	750
South Carolina.....	3	3	366	366	10	10	2,500
Tennessee.....	2	2	281	281	9	9	4,350
Texas.....	6	6	617	617	17	17	3,640
Virginia.....	7	2	5	847	797	50	52	52	31,075	335,000
Northern States.....	9	9	1,387	1,387	38	38	15,094

The complete financial statistics of these schools could not be obtained. The annual income for current expenses was estimated at \$150,000. The value of the prop-

¹ Catholic Board for Mission Work among Colored People; director-general, Monsignor John E. Burke, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City. This board was incorporated under the laws of Tennessee in 1907 for the special purpose of organizing and encouraging missions and schools for Negroes.

Commission to Distribute Lenten Funds among Indians and Negroes; secretary, E. R. Dyer, D. D., St. Mary's Seminary, Baltimore, Md. This commission is the result of the order issued by the council of Baltimore in 1884. Money is given to missions only when they apply for aid.

Josephite Fathers, Baltimore, Md. This order began work among Negroes in 1870. By 1888 it had organized four missions. Mother Katherine Drexel, of Philadelphia. Mother Katherine has organized several large schools for Negroes. According to Monsignor Burke, "she has given part or all of the funds for almost every colored mission in the South."

NEGRO EDUCATION.

erty of the seven larger schools is about \$500,000, of which \$335,000 is in the two schools at Rock Castle, Va. The total attendance is 13,507, of whom 13,443 are elementary and only 64 secondary. The number of teachers is 404, the majority being white sisters of various Catholic orders. The proportion of teachers of simple industry is small and the number teaching gardening and agriculture is negligible.

CHRISTIAN CHURCH.¹

The Christian Church² began work among the colored people as soon as the Civil War was ended. There was no organized plan until 1872, when a group of philanthropists formed a stock company to start a school in Mississippi. About 1890 the American Christian Missionary Society took over the property and work of the stock company. In 1900 all the property was finally transferred to the Woman's Board. Through the efforts of this board the annual contributions have increased from \$3,000 to \$10,000 and four schools have been added to the one³ in Mississippi. A summary of the schools of this church is given herewith:

CHRISTIAN WOMAN'S BOARD OF MISSIONS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	5	3	2	440	409	31	37	15	22	\$29,910	\$184,602
Alabama.....	1	1	93	85	8	6	6	2,512	8,875
Mississippi.....	1	1	106	173	23	18	15	3	21,006	160,492
Tennessee.....	1	1	61	61	4	4	1,730	3,750
Texas.....	1	1	14	14	3	3	1,712	3,000
Virginia.....	1	1	76	76	6	6	2,950	8,485

The Christian Woman's Board maintains five schools, of which two are rated as "larger or more important" and three "smaller" schools. The total income for current expenses is \$29,910, of which \$21,000 is for the Southern Christian Institute in Mississippi. The value of property is \$184,602, of which \$160,492 is also in the plant of the Southern Institute. The total attendance is 440, of whom 409 are elementary and 31 secondary. The number of teachers is 37, of whom 15 are white and 22 colored; 14 are men and 23 are women.

The general management of these schools is economical and the educational work is fairly effective. The simplicity of organization and the genuine interest of the teachers are noteworthy. It is to be hoped that a work so well done may be extended. With larger contributions and slightly greater emphasis on the educational phases of school activities, the value of the work would be greatly increased.

¹ White.

² Christian Woman's Board of Missions, Indianapolis, Ind.; Superintendent of Work for Negroes, J. B. Lehman, Edwards.

CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.¹

The American Missionary Association² owns and supervises 29 schools for Negroes in the Southern States. The association also owns property in other schools and makes contributions to their work. As the management of these affiliated institutions has been transferred to independent boards of trustees, they are classified under other groups. Credit must be given to this association, however, not only for such affiliated institutions as Fisk University, but also for a number of others now maintained independently.

A summary of the schools of the American Missionary Association is given below.

AMERICAN MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	29	29	6,922	5,448	1,380	94	383	212	171	\$235,764	\$1,733,589
Alabama.....	6	6	1,714	1,445	224	45	89	57	32	63,552	546,769
Florida.....	1	1	225	210	15	12	12	3,343	49,300
Georgia.....	6	6	1,459	1,167	292	68	32	36	33,583	133,900
Kentucky.....	1	1	170	137	33	10	7	3	5,559	39,000
Louisiana.....	1	1	578	364	203	11	30	17	13	20,385	150,000
Mississippi.....	4	4	843	687	136	20	47	38	9	32,489	172,400
North Carolina.....	5	5	826	718	108	52	16	36	30,000	394,920
South Carolina.....	2	2	484	327	157	21	17	4	13,626	53,900
Tennessee.....	1	1	285	174	111	21	14	7	12,537	54,000
Texas.....	1	1	223	135	70	18	20	14	6	12,792	103,500
Virginia.....	1	1	115	84	31	13	13	7,898	35,900

No denominational schools surpass those of this group in educational standards or administrative efficiency. It is probable that no church board has equaled this association in the thoroughness of its self-examination. The following quotation from the 1914 report outlines policies to which every church board should give serious consideration:

In the realm of educational policy we record a most important change of tendency, which it is better to state positively as a *movement toward concentration in order to secure greater efficiency*. This has involved the discontinuance or radical limitation of five of our smaller schools, including some of long history and rich service. * * * The time had come when the socialized Christian conscience demanded such improved methods in missionary service as it requires—often by law—of educators, landlords, employers of labor, and congregations of men anywhere. It has cost \$1,000, for instance, literally to stop rat holes in mission buildings and thus to save New Orleans and Porto Rico from danger from bubonic plague. We had to do better what we did at all, and our resources were insufficient. We simply had to close institutions. * * *

While these peremptory conditions have closed some of the schools nearest to the masses of the people, we are glad to record as the chief technical gain of the year that the colleges have been made more available and useful to the masses. Their curricula have been broadened, and the conditions of entrance made more democratic and in harmony with those of the great middle western State universities. This is immediately manifest in the increased number of high-school pupils, and will affect the colleges to-morrow.

¹ White.² American Missionary Association, 47 Fourth Avenue, New York City; honorary secretary, A. F. Board; corresponding secretary, Charles J. Ryder and E. Paul Douglass.

As to educational plant, last year's survey touched upon the demand of the socialized conscience for better housing conditions in missionary institutions. Our response is in the fact that no year has ever spent so much for sanitation, that more fire escapes have been erected, and more bathtubs installed than in any previous year. * * * As a class, they are more nearly fireproof, they have more steel in their structure, more scientifically determined allowance of light and air, and more beauty than any previous group. * * * If the Lord's work is attempted at all it shall be done under somewhat decent conditions. Nor do we feel that it is a substitution of the physical for the spiritual. To live up to plumbing is itself a training of character; health is a prerequisite of thought, and beauty an inalienable right of the spirit.

The total income for the current expenses of these institutions is \$235,764, of which \$129,429 is from the association. This includes the income from the Daniel Hand Fund, which is administered by the association. On the basis of income, 5 of the schools are under \$2,500, 7 have incomes between \$2,500 and \$5,000, 13 between \$5,000 and \$15,000, 3 between \$15,000 and \$30,000, and 1 has an income over \$30,000. The total property is valued at \$1,733,589, of which about one and a third million is in plant and a third of a million in endowment. With the Daniel Hand Fund of almost two million dollars, the property of the American Missionary Association for work among Negroes aggregates over three and a half millions. There are 4 schools with a property valuation under \$10,000, 10 schools with valuations between \$10,000 and \$25,000, 9 schools between \$25,000 and \$50,000, 4 schools between \$50,000 and \$250,000, and 2 with a valuation over \$250,000.

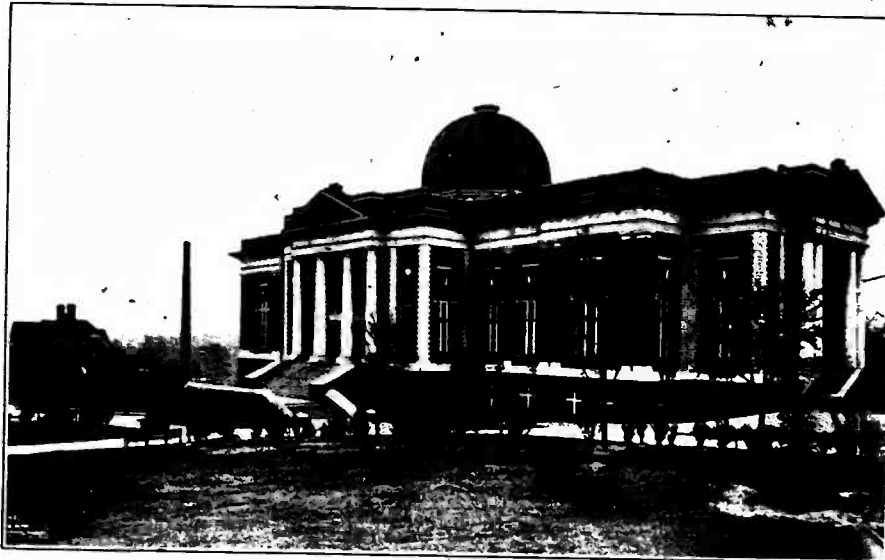
Attendance and teachers.—The attendance in these schools was 6,922, of whom 5,448 were elementary, 1,380 secondary, and 94 collegiate. All the schools have elementary classes, all but three have secondary, and four offer instruction in college subjects. The number of teachers is 383, of whom 212 are white and 171, or 45 per cent, colored; 92 are men and 291, or 76 per cent, are women; and 270, or 70 per cent, are academic teachers.

The percentages for sex and work of teachers indicate the policy usually followed by church boards. Low salaries have made necessary the employment of too large a proportion of women and a conservative educational policy has assigned relatively too many teachers to the academic classes. A total of seven teachers of agriculture shows little regard for the needs of a people so overwhelmingly rural as the Negroes of the Southern States. The lower percentage of colored teachers reflects the determination of the association to maintain a genuine personal interest in the welfare of the colored people.

History and administration.—Though the colored membership of the Congregational Church is almost negligible as compared with that of the Baptist and Methodist Churches, the American Missionary Association was probably the first to undertake educational work in behalf of the Negroes. In 1861 Rev. L. I. Lockwood, commissioned by the association, wrote from Fortress Monroe:

I ask especial interest in your prayers that I may be endowed with wisdom for these peculiar and momentous responsibilities. Parents and children are delighted with the idea of learning to read.

The history of the American Missionary Association is a story of the patient and persevering efforts of hundreds of faithful men and women who have given themselves and their means for a people struggling upward from slavery. Some of the results of their endeavors are recorded in the educational work not only of the schools still under their control, but also in such institutions as Fisk and Atlanta Universities and Hampton Institute. The administration of the affairs of the association has always been in the care of strong men of broad education, some of them statesmen in power and vision.



A. DINING HALL, TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE.



B. FRIENDS OF THE PINEY WOODS COUNTRY LIFE SCHOOL, BRAXTON, MISS.
Among the visitors are officers both of the Blue and of the Gray.

Auditor's report on accounting methods.—The report of the chartered accountant on the financial records of the association heartily approved of the thoroughness in the records of the larger transactions. Since his visit in 1915, the treasurer has made a number of important changes. The following quotation outlines a recommendation which is doubtless included in some of the changes now being effected in the accounts:

A special system of accounting might be established in the schools, so as to provide, in the simplest way, the necessary financial information for the association, as well as business information for the principals in their transactions with students and in controlling the departments efficiently. It does not seem possible thoroughly to control a school which operates a farm, store, trading shops, and boarding department in addition to the usual academic departments, without having a system of departmental accounts showing all expenses and credits to each activity. This seems the only way of knowing the economic efficiency of the workers and the cost of each part of the organization. It is the only way of establishing a budget system of control.

Recommendations.—1. That the association continue the policies outlined in its annual report for 1914.

2. That adaptation to community needs be still further recognized in school activities.

FRIENDS SOCIETIES.¹

The various societies of Friends maintain six schools rated as "larger and more important" and two smaller schools. All of these schools are owned and managed by independent boards composed largely of Friends. The names and locations of the six more important schools are as follows: Schofield Normal and Industrial School and Laing School, in South Carolina; Cheyney Institute, in Pennsylvania; Christiansburg Industrial Institute, in Virginia; High Point Normal School, in North Carolina; and Southland College, in Arkansas. The educational work and administrative management of these institutions compare favorably with those of other church schools. No religious group has surpassed the Friends either in financial contributions or personal endeavor for the education of the Negroes.

A summary of the schools maintained by Friends is given herewith:

FRIENDS SOCIETIES AND OTHER FRIENDS AGENCIES.

States.	Number of schools.			Estimated attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small; less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	8	6	2	1,642	1,444	198	96	12	84	\$63,868	\$925,900
Arkansas.....	1	1	352	324	28	16	6	10	4,115	79,400
North Carolina.....	1	1	408	374	34	14	14	12,366	39,000
South Carolina.....	2	2	408	376	32	31	4	27	8,551	180,000
Virginia.....	1	1	225	208	17	13	13	8,798	157,500
Northern States.....	3	1	2	249	162	87	22	2	20	30,038	460,000

¹ Board of the Five Years' Meeting on the Condition and Welfare of the Negroes; secretary, Miss Carolina M. Wood, Mount Kisco, N. Y.
 Friends of Philadelphia, Race and Fifteenth Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.; representative, John T. Emolen.
 Society of Friends Orthodox Branch, 304 Arch Street, Philadelphia.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

The total income for current expenses is \$63,868 and the value of property is \$915,900, of which \$378,900 is in plant and \$537,000 in endowment. The attendance is 1,642, of whom 1,444 are elementary and 198 secondary. The teachers are 96 in number; 12 are white and 84 are colored; 29 are men and 67 women; and 57 are academic teachers. Only two of the schools are managed by white officers. The proportion of industrial teachers is fairly adequate. Instruction in gardening and agriculture is, however, not sufficiently emphasized to meet the needs of a rural people.

Recommendations.—That the various societies of Friends cooperate in the employment of an educational supervisor of all the schools maintained by Friends.

2. That the Friends continue both their financial aid and their personal efforts in behalf of Negro education.

LUTHERAN BOARD.¹

The Lutheran Board of Colored Missions² owns and maintains one institution rated as "larger or more important" and eight "smaller or less important." The larger institution, Immanuel Lutheran College, is located at Greensboro, N. C., with pupils practically all of elementary grade. The eight smaller schools are parochial schools, meeting in mission chapels or in rented buildings, usually of one room. "Luther College," in New Orleans, is rated as one of the smaller schools, though it occupies a better building than the others.

A summary of the schools maintained by the Lutheran Board of Missions is given herewith:

LUTHERAN BOARD OF MISSIONS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small: less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	9	1	8	1,147	1,147	26	13	13	\$18,319	\$72,000
North Carolina.....	1	1	110	110	6	4	2	6,919	46,500
Louisiana.....	8	8	1,037	1,037	20	9	11	11,400	25,500

The total income for current expenses of these schools is \$18,319. The attendance is 1,147, practically all of elementary grade. The total number of teachers is 26, of whom 13 are white and 13 are colored; 21 are men and 5 are women. Some effort is made to teach secondary and theological subjects at the Greensboro school. The teachers devote practically all their time to academic instruction. There seems to be little effort to give instruction in gardening or simple industry.

Though the Lutheran work for Negroes was begun as early as 1879 and the board has expended considerable money and effort, the results seem to be very meager. It is probable that reference to the experience and methods of other church boards would have made possible more effective plans. In view of the great educational needs of the

¹ White.

² Board for Colored Missions of Evangelical Lutheran Conference, St. Louis, Mo.; chairman, C. F. Drewes, 4108 Natural Bridge Avenue; field secretary, J. N. Bakke, 310 Dover Place.

Negroes, it is most desirable that this board should reorganize its work according to the experience of other boards and continue its financial aid for the religious and educational improvement of the Negroes.

METHODIST BOARDS.¹

The Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church² owns and supervises 18 educational institutions for Negroes in the United States. All of these schools are rendering valuable educational service to their communities and all deserve the support and interest of the church. Besides these institutions, credit must be given to this society for the organization of Meharry Medical College, now managed by an independent board of trustees and classified with the independent group. The Sarah Goodridge Nurse Training School and Hospital is also omitted from the Freedmen group and classified with special institutions. Princess Ann Academy in Maryland is tabulated with the land-grant schools, according to its chief source of income. The school homes for colored girls are closely related to the institutions under this society. The homes are maintained by the Woman's Home Missionary Society, for which the facts are presented after those for the Freedmen's Aid Society.

A tabular view of the work of the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church is given herewith:

FREEDMEN'S AID SOCIETY OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small: less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	18	18	5,059	3,263	1,600	196	266	65	201	\$230,160	\$2,605,687
Alabama.....	1	1	190	139	51	11	11	5,657	42,500
Arkansas.....	1	1	439	268	132	39	15	15	9,226	72,300
Florida.....	1	1	408	359	49	14	3	11	9,387	101,578
Georgia.....	2	2	382	128	222	32	23	9	14	43,714	859,200
Louisiana.....	2	2	645	498	138	9	28	9	19	16,133	219,000
Maryland.....	1	1	81	55	26	11	7	4	16,419	96,874
Mississippi.....	2	2	504	364	132	8	23	5	18	21,850	146,200
Missouri.....	1	1	73	10	63	12	2	10	8,520	59,000
North Carolina.....	1	1	312	235	77	12	12	6,000	49,000
South Carolina.....	1	1	814	597	191	26	27	6	21	39,547	362,035
Tennessee.....	2	2	365	213	152	42	24	18	25,084	274,000
Texas.....	2	2	761	443	262	56	43	43	25,223	293,000
Virginia.....	1	1	85	9	76	5	5	3,400	35,500

While the schools of this society are rendering a valuable service, the standards of administration and educational work of many of them have not been satisfactory. At least five of the schools have been in need of reorganization and a number of others could

¹ White.

² Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church, 220-222 West Fourth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio; secretaries, P. J. Maveety and I. Garland Penn; school inspector, C. W. Bennett.

Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 222 West Fourth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio; president, Mrs. W. P. Thirkield; corresponding secretary, Mrs. M. L. Woodruff; treasurer, Mrs. E. C. Jennings.

be much improved. The general management of most of these institutions is in striking contrast with that of the school homes managed by the Woman's Home Missionary Society of the same church. Whereas the school homes are almost without exception clean and orderly in appearance and effective in discipline and educational work, some of the institutions under the Freedmen's Aid Society have failed to maintain satisfactory standards in these respects.

The annual income for current expenses of the 18 schools is \$230,160, of which \$105,835 is from the society. All of the schools have an annual income of \$2,500 or over; 2 have incomes between \$2,500 and \$5,000; 12 between \$5,000 and \$15,000; 3 between \$15,000 and \$30,000; and 1 has an income over \$30,000. The total property valuation is \$2,605,687, of which \$1,824,778 is in the school plant and \$742,874 in endowment. All of the schools have a property valuation in excess of \$25,000, 4 have valuations between \$25,000 and \$50,000; 5 between \$50,000 and \$100,000; 3 between \$100,000 and \$150,000; 3 between \$150,000 and \$250,000; and 3 have valuations over \$250,000.

Attendance and teachers.—The attendance of these schools is 5,059, of whom 3,263 are elementary, 1,600 secondary, and 196 collegiate. All but two of the schools have elementary pupils, all are maintaining secondary classes, and eight are offering instruction in college subjects. At the time of visit none of these institutions were adequately equipped to offer four-year college courses and a number of them were hampering other departments of their work in the effort to maintain college classes. The number of teachers is 266, of whom 65 are white and 201, or 75 per cent, are colored; 109 are men and 157, or 59 per cent, are women; and 191, or 72 per cent, are academic teachers.

The proportion of academic teachers is about the same as that in most of the denominational schools. The emphasis on the literary courses is marked. It is unfortunate that this large denomination with 18 educational institutions should provide only three gardening teachers for the education of a people so largely rural. The percentage of men in the teaching force is above the average of church schools. This is probably explained by the fact that the proportion of colored teachers in these institutions is also above the average. The substitution of colored for white teachers in the Freedmen's Aid schools has evidently proceeded with considerable rapidity. The indications are that the change has been too rapid for the good of the schools. While democracy in education requires the recognition of the colored teachers, it is equally true that these schools need not only the financial aid of white people but also their personal influence.

History and administration.—The Freedmen's Aid Society was organized in 1866 "for the purpose of aiding the recently emancipated slaves and their children in securing the benefits of a good common school education, and such other educational preparation as was necessary to provide Christian ministers, physicians, school teachers, and industrial leaders for the race." The colored members of the various branches of Methodism are next to the colored Baptists in number. The number of colored members in the Northern Methodist Church represented by the Freedmen's Aid Society and the Woman's Missionary Society is about 350,000. These members contribute about a fourth of the total sums collected by the Freedmen's Aid Society for the education of colored people.

The executive officers of the society at present are two corresponding secretaries and a school inspector. These three officers supervise the schools and appeal to the

white and colored churches for funds to support the institutions. They have already accomplished a number of needed improvements.

Recommendations.—In 1914 a report on the schools of the Freedmen's Aid Society was made by a commission composed of the leading educators of the church. The recommendations of this commission are valuable not only for the schools of this denomination but also for those of other denominations. The more important conclusions are summarized herewith:

We are persuaded that in spite of the better rural schools now being provided for the Negroes in spite of some growth in normal school and high school accommodations, the work of the Freedmen's Aid Society is still an urgent need of the South. So far from sounding any retreat, we of the church should make a great advance, provide a large endowment, give more adequate facilities, pay better salaries, and, in general, strengthen the institutions we have established. They are needed to train a Christian leadership for the colored race, and while they can touch but a few out of the Negro millions, they can do, as they have already done, great things through these selected leaders.

The election of an educational secretary of experience and training who shall be responsible directly to the board, and who, under the board, shall have immediate supervision of the schools and their work.

That the powers of the president in each school be larger and be more clearly defined. Having been chosen to carry out for the institution a particular policy determined by the board, he should be intrusted with responsibility and authority for the effective accomplishment of that purpose.

That the board prepare and adopt a uniform system of keeping accounts, and that local bursars and treasurers be furnished with books and complete sets of blanks for the same. We believe it would be advisable at least once in two years to send an expert accountant to each school to audit the accounts and to give any needed instruction in keeping the accounts and records in correct form.

A uniform system of keeping school records should also be adopted, and necessary cards or books provided for the same by the board.

In view of some grave mistakes which have been made in the construction of buildings, we recommend that a competent school architect be named, to whom all plans for new buildings or the remodeling of existing buildings shall be submitted, and who shall make recommendations to the board concerning them before they are adopted.

That a constructive policy be adopted for the future development of our schools. It is evident to the commission that we have too many colleges (11 now offering college work, with only 250 college students in all, in some places as few as 8 or 9), and that some of our institutions should undertake particular lines of work, looking to local adaptation and needs. We question the wide use of the word "university," and also the effort of so many institutions to do college work for which they have neither the equipment nor the teaching force.

We suggest the advisability of conferring with the governing boards of other denominations and educational agencies, with a view to securing uniform action in finding appropriate names for the southern schools.

That everything below the ninth grade be classed as grammar school, and that such work, particularly of the lower grades, be discontinued as soon as local conditions will warrant, except as may be required for practice teaching.

That when college and secondary work are given in the same institution, they should be kept as distinct, as regards the work of instruction and the mingling of students in classes, as circumstances will permit.

That some instructors are teaching more hours each week than can be done efficiently, and that recitation periods should not be less than forty-five minutes in work above the grades; also that a larger proportion of men teachers is desirable.

That more flexibility be given to the courses of study, so that schools can be better adapted to local needs and conditions, and to the particular kinds of work the students propose to do.

There is a constantly increasing demand for well-trained Negro teachers. We therefore recommend that, where college work is to be continued, some courses in education more advanced than secondary work be offered.

We would emphasize the necessity for exactness in thought and speech, for accuracy and thoroughness in action, for regularity of habit, and would urge special attention to these in the work of classrooms and in the life of the schools everywhere.

We note that laboratories are generally inadequate and that work in science is generally poor. We therefore recommend that a more generous equipment be sought and larger provision for science be made in the curriculum, whenever the facilities are available.

That thorough instruction be given in all grades in personal and public hygiene.

We are so impressed with the importance of industrial work for both boys and girls that we recommend that a place be made in the curricula in all academies and academic departments of colleges for such work, and that at several points a larger development of training for domestic arts and various trades be carried on. The addition of garden and farm work is everywhere greatly to be desired.

We approve of the "duty system" and recommend the extension of the plan for the care and improvement of the grounds and buildings. This work should be done under supervision, and in some cases payment might be allowed.

We suggest that high ideals govern the construction and maintenance of dormitories and other buildings, especially those relating to light, ventilation, cleanliness, toilet, and bathing facilities, the provision of single beds, and the construction of bedroom closets. Special emphasis should be placed upon cleanliness of person and upon neatness of buildings and grounds, in order to teach the colored people how to live. The respectability of manual labor should be taught by precept and example.

We suggest the introduction into the schools of savings plans to encourage thrift, and of any practicable forms of community extension and service.

Libraries with few exceptions are composed of almost worthless books donated by ministers and others, unclassified and unused. We recommend that libraries be classified and built up by the addition of modern, usable books as rapidly as possible.

The Woman's Home Missionary Society owns and maintains 12 home schools for girls. Eight of them are connected with the various educational institutions of the Freedmen's Aid Society. These homes usually provide the lessons in cooking and sewing for all the young women in the school with which they are affiliated. In addition a few girls live at the homes and receive instruction in household arts through the actual care of the house. Four of the homes are independent and furnish both general instruction and practice in household arts. Practically all of them are very well managed. The instruction, both theoretical and practical, is effective. A summary of the work is given herewith:

WOMAN'S HOME MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

State.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance. ¹				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total	12	12		1,572	1,429	53		71	41	30	\$42,975	\$309,500
Arkansas	1	1		119	119			3	1	2	2,257	14,300
Florida	1	1		224	216	8		13	4	9	6,281	73,000
Georgia	2	2		259	259			11	7	4	7,220	15,000
Louisiana	1	1		175	175			6	4	2	3,171	45,000
Mississippi	1	1		55	55			4	3	1	4,895	32,000
North Carolina	2	2		380	358	22		13	10	3	7,488	33,000
South Carolina	1	1		279	256	23		12	7	5	5,373	75,500
Tennessee	1	1		31	31			2	2		2,595	8,700
Texas	2	2		50	50			7	3	4	3,695	13,000

¹ All but 286 of the pupils in these homes are also pupils in schools of the Freedmen's Aid Society with which the homes are maintained.

In some instances there is evidence of misunderstanding between the homes and the Freedmen's Aid institutions with which they are associated. Some of the difficulty is the result of two departments under independent authority. The more fundamental difficulty is probably in the different standards and ideals of school activities. The homes are insisting on an educational emphasis that is not in accord with the literary ideals of the schools. They usually demand a more effective discipline and more attention to the simple but essential elements of home life. In view of the indifference of some of the schools to these important phases of education, the influence of these homes is all the more vital to the schools. It is to be hoped that the schools and the homes may work out a more vital and satisfactory cooperation than hitherto. Wherever it can possibly be arranged, every girl should be required to spend some time in the home.

The total income for the current expenses of all the homes is \$42,975, of which \$38,502 is received from the Missionary Society. The value of all the property is \$287,000. The total attendance is 1,572 girls, of whom 808 are in the homes not connected with the Freedmen's Aid Society. The teachers and workers are 71 women, of whom 41 are white and 30 colored; 18 are academic and 42 are industrial teachers.

History and administration.—The society began its work in 1881 when Thayer Home was built at Clark University, Atlanta, Ga. It is organized in "bureaus," each of which employs a white volunteer secretary and assistants. "Each bureau has the responsibility in its own field of executing the plans and applying the funds as ordered by the general board of managers." The central office is at Cincinnati, Ohio. The following comments by an accredited accountant indicate the need of more uniformity in the accounting systems:

No special system of accounting has been established in the schools whereby uniform reports might be prepared. It is important that this be done; especially as the principals disburse funds, and are called upon to submit monthly reports. Also, the books of the schools are not examined by a visiting auditor. The students' accounts are not properly controlled, as an integral part of the bookkeeping system, consequently it can not be said that accurate departmental cost accounts are forthcoming. No inventories of the contents of buildings are on file.

PRESBYTERIAN BOARD.

The Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church¹ owns and supervises 32² schools classed as "larger or more important" and 53 rated as "smaller or less important." The 32 "more important" schools are regarded as essential parts of the educational activities of the States in which they are located. Through wise administration and fairly adequate equipment, they are meeting the needs of their communities or working successfully in that direction. Five of them are seminaries for colored girls. The educational work and general administration of these seminaries are excellent. They are among the best schools for colored people in the South. Two are boarding schools for young colored men, the others are boarding and day schools for boys and girls. Because of limited means and ineffective administration, a number of schools in the latter group fail to attain to the standards of the girls' seminaries. A few of them, such as the Haines Institute, are, however, very well managed and quite equal to the seminaries in general efficiency.

¹ White.

² The Board of Missions for Freedmen, 513 Bessemer Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.; secretaries, E. P. Cowan and John M. Gaston.

³ Includes Lincoln University, which is not directly under the board but is included because of its Presbyterian affiliation.

Investigation shows that the 53 "less important" schools listed are of comparatively little value educationally. A large number of them are composed of a few children assembled in mission churches and taught by the minister's wife or daughter. Some of them are too poorly equipped to be of use, some are doing work which could be better done by other schools, and some are mission churches rather than schools. The Freedmen's Board publishes the names of 56 other schools which are not included in this report. Extensive visitation through southern counties, conference with white and colored persons engaged in school work, and wide correspondence point to the conclusion that these 56 schools are not of sufficient importance to be included in this study.

While there is no doubt that many of these hundred or more small parochial schools are doing some good, the general average of their work is so low as to reflect seriously on the wisdom of continuing them without a marked increase in the amount of supervision. Reference to the experience and policies of the American Missionary Association, the Baptist Home Mission Society, and the Methodist Freedmen's Aid Society, described in this chapter, shows emphatically the importance of concentration in the educational efforts of mission boards. These boards are not able to superintend a large number of widely scattered small schools. The inevitable result of the effort to do so has been waste and inefficiency. The proper function of religious boards and philanthropic organizations is to establish leavening centers; the small individual schools should be maintained by public authorities. Inasmuch as the Presbyterian Board can not offer adequate means and supervision to its larger schools as well as to its small parochial schools, sound policy suggests that the board follow the experience of the other boards and concentrate its efforts on the more important schools.

A summary table of these schools follows:

BOARD OF MISSIONS FOR FREEDMEN OF THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

State.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	85	32	53	8,915	7,833	930	152	423	84	330	\$200,124	\$7,151,321
Alabama.....	3	2	1	391	375	16	25	13	12	10,116	55,000
Arkansas.....	8	2	6	774	740	34	28	28	5,911	40,350
Florida.....	3	3	247	247	9	0	1,150	4,000
Georgia.....	11	7	4	1,787	1,545	242	67	67	20,192	91,444
Kentucky.....	2	2	98	82	16	9	9	3,000	11,050
Mississippi.....	1	1	199	150	49	14	14	6,517	71,000
North Carolina.....	15	4	11	1,879	1,564	293	22	93	15	78	47,346	478,665
Oklahoma.....	1	1	93	92	1	6	6	1,976	8,000
South Carolina.....	10	6	4	1,808	1,733	75	75	7	68	22,907	158,050
Tennessee.....	8	3	5	607	551	56	34	34	10,052	87,950
Texas.....	1	1	115	88	27	13	13	10,979	60,000
Virginia.....	12	2	10	791	666	35	36	10	26	11,915	44,400
Northern States ¹	1	1	216	86	130	14	12	2	48,063	1,041,412

¹ While Lincoln University, the one school in Northern States, is not under the board of missions, it is listed here because of its Presbyterian affiliation.

Income and property.—The total income for current expenses of the schools under the Freedmen's Board, including Lincoln University, was \$200,124. Of this \$176,946 was spent in the 32 larger schools and \$23,178 in the 53 smaller schools. On the basis of income, 17 schools were under \$2,500; 4 between \$2,500 and \$5,000; 9 between \$5,000 and \$15,000, and 1 between \$15,000 and \$30,000. Lincoln University has an income of \$48,000.

The total value of property of the 31 schools directly under the board was \$1,109,909, of which \$1,038,729 was in the property of the larger schools and \$71,180 in the property of the smaller schools. The inclusion of Lincoln University brings the property of the larger Presbyterian schools up to \$2,151,321. On the basis of property valuation 14 schools were below \$10,000; 5 between \$10,000 and \$25,000; 3 between \$25,000 and \$50,000; 8 between \$50,000 and \$100,000. Two schools have property valuation over \$250,000.

Attendance and teachers.—The attendance of all the schools under this board, including Lincoln University, was 8,915, of whom 7,833 were elementary pupils, 930 secondary, and 152 in college studies. Lincoln University had 130 students reported as of collegiate grade and Biddle University 22 in college subjects. Biddle is not adequately equipped to do college work. The teachers and workers in these institutions are 423 in number, of whom 84 are white and 339, or 80 per cent, are colored; 131 are men and 292, or 69 per cent are women; and 373, or 88 per cent, are academic.

These percentages indicate that the schools under the Freedmen's board have an unusual proportion of colored teachers. As the secretary recently reported, "an overwhelming number of their workers belong to the colored race. There are only six white men in our employ." White workers are now limited to the five girls' seminaries and one other school. These comments do not refer to Lincoln University, whose teachers are with two exceptions white men. Here again the experience of other boards is worthy of consideration. This experience shows clearly that the white boards render their best service when they send not only their money but also their capable men and women to have a vital part in the instruction of colored youth. The percentage of women teachers is large, but it does not exceed the average in church schools. The proportion of academic teachers is larger than it is in any other group under white or colored boards. The number of industrial teachers is very small and the agricultural teachers are negligible in number and quality.

History and administration.—The Presbyterian Church began work among Negroes as early as 1864. Two committees, with headquarters at Indianapolis and Philadelphia, were combined by the General Assembly at Pittsburgh in 1865. In 1870 a committee doing similar work in New York was consolidated with the Pittsburgh committee. In 1882 this committee was incorporated under the present name of the board. The woman's department was organized in 1884. Through this department the women of the church have rendered valuable aid to the schools.

The administrative affairs of the board have been managed by conscientious men of noble purposes, who have given their best thought to the work.

Recommendations.—1. That the educational activities of the board be studied by a commission of capable Presbyterian educators of the type appointed by the Methodist Church in 1913 and by the Congregational board in 1916.

2. That the Presbyterian Church endeavor to increase the support of its schools for colored people.
3. That a policy of concentration of educational effort be adopted and the energy and money centered as rapidly as possible on the institutions of educational promise.
4. That the policy of eliminating white teachers from these institutions be discontinued and an effort made to prevail upon the strong white men and women of the church to recognize their responsibility and opportunity by becoming officers and teachers in schools for colored people.
5. That a more effective system of accounts and records be introduced into the schools and a regular audit made.

EPISCOPAL BOARDS.¹

The American Church Institute for Negroes was organized and incorporated in 1906 for the purpose of assisting in the religious education of the Negroes. Its first secretary was the Rev. Samuel H. Bishop, whose faithful service was ended by death in 1914. The Rev. Robert W. Patton, the secretary of the Fourth Provincial Synod, now gives partial time to the raising of funds and the supervision of the eight schools receiving aid from the institute. These schools are as follows:

- St. Augustine's School, Raleigh, N. C.
- St. Paul's Normal and Industrial School, Lawrenceville, Va.
- Bishop Payne Divinity School, Petersburg, Va.
- St. Athanasius' Parochial School, Brunswick, Ga.
- Vicksburg Industrial School, Vicksburg, Miss.
- St. Mark's Academic and Industrial School, Birmingham, Ala.
- St. Mary's Parochial School, Columbia, S. C.
- Fort Valley High and Industrial School, Fort Valley, Ga.

The Episcopal Board of Missions includes every phase of missionary activity, whether domestic or foreign. This board appropriates about \$50,000 annually for the education of Negroes in the United States. These gifts are made on the suggestion and advice of the bishops of the various dioceses. Appropriations for the larger institutions are sent directly to their treasurers. The small parochial schools are aided through the bishops of their diocese. These schools are frequently only small groups of children taught in the church. Their value depends very largely on the amount of supervision given by the officers of the diocese. The existence of many is uncertain and it has been impossible to obtain an accurate list. Their work presumably is more religious than educational.

¹ American Church Institute for Negroes, 416 Lafayette Street, New York City; special representative, Robert W. Patton, secretary, Mrs. Isabel M. Carter.

² The Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society of the Protestant Episcopal Church, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

AMERICAN CHURCH INSTITUTE AND THE EPISCOPAL BOARD OF MISSIONS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	24	10	14	2,988	2,720	268		176	12	164	\$118,526	\$628,743
Alabama.....	1	1		192	171	21		7		7	4,485	22,000
Florida.....	3		3	193	193			8		8	1,835	3,500
Georgia.....	5	2	3	685	643	42		38		38	18,204	60,500
Mississippi.....	1	1		121	121			5		5	2,514	5,000
North Carolina.....	5	2	3	640	506	74		39	9	30	30,069	211,500
South Carolina.....	4	1	3	607	508	9		15		15	3,976	12,000
Tennessee.....	1		1	32	32			4		4	1,182	4,000
Texas.....	1	1		73	68	5		4		4	2,500	25,000
Virginia.....	3	2	1	445	328	117		56	3	53	53,761	279,243

The Episcopal Board of Missions and the American Church Institute give aid to 24 schools, of which 10 are rated as "large or more important" and 14 as "small or less important." On the basis of income one of the large schools has an income under \$2,500, five have incomes between \$2,500 and \$5,000, two between \$5,000 and \$15,000, one between \$15,000 and \$30,000, and one over \$30,000. These four are St. Augustine's School in North Carolina, Fort Valley School in Georgia, St. Paul's School and Bishop Payne Divinity School in Virginia. Several of the schools are located in the crowded sections of cities. Many of the "small" schools are parochial schools whose aim is religious rather than educational.

General statistics.—The total income of these schools is \$118,526, of which \$109,181 is for the 10 "larger" institutions and \$9,345 for the 14 "less important" schools. The total value of property is \$628,734, of which \$604,543 is the property of the larger institutions and \$24,200 is the property of the smaller schools. The larger institutions have an endowment of \$106,835.

The total attendance comprised 2,988 pupils, of whom 2,720 were elementary and 268 secondary. The 15 students at Bishop Payne Divinity School were preparing for the Episcopal ministry. About a thousand of the pupils reported were in attendance at the "smaller" schools. The total number of teachers and workers was 176, of whom 12 were white and 164 were colored; 58 were men and 118, or 67 per cent, were women; and 118, or 68 per cent, were teachers of academic subjects.

The proportion of colored workers is very large. Only St. Augustine's and Bishop Payne Divinity School have any white officers or teachers. It is evident that the white members of the Episcopal Church have not given serious consideration to the colored schools of their church. The church has contributed a small proportion of its wealth, but the number and condition of the schools indicate a lack of interest in their work. The number of industrial teachers compares favorably with other church schools. Only three teachers of gardening and agriculture are employed in all these institutions. Such a number indicates that the schools do not appreciate the needs of a people so largely rural as the Negroes of the Southern States.

Recommendations.—1. That the Episcopal Church organize all its educational work for Negroes under the American Church Institute and give to this institute sufficient financial aid to make possible an educational work that is worthy of the traditions and the wealth of the church.

2. That all donations to church schools be made under the direction of a superintendent acquainted with the character of the educational and administrative activities of each school.

3. That a committee of the representative educators of the Episcopal Church study the condition of the schools for Negroes and report their findings to the church.

4. That schools located in the crowded sections of cities be continued only until the public schools become adequate. Permanent institutions in cities should be conducted as social settlements and all boarding schools should, as soon as practicable, be removed to suburban or rural districts.

UNITED PRESBYTERIAN BOARD.¹

The Board of Freedmen's Missions owns and maintains 15 schools for Negroes in the United States. Of these 11 are rated as "more important" and 4 as "less important." While 11 schools are regarded as "important," or essential parts of the educational activities of their communities, the average income per school is only about six or seven thousand dollars a year. Knoxville College, with an income of \$25,470, is the central institution of the system. The good work of this institution is seen in the high type of graduates who are employed as teachers in the smaller schools.

BOARD OF FREEDMEN'S MISSIONS OF THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

State.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total	15	11	4	2,870	2,470	370	30	166	44	122	\$88,512	\$455,600
Alabama	6	6	...	1,022	954	68	...	58	...	58	20,648	73,650
North Carolina	1	1	...	375	334	41	...	18	...	18	8,500	50,400
Tennessee	5	1	4	635	483	122	30	50	24	26	33,820	106,950
Virginia	3	3	...	838	690	139	...	40	20	20	25,544	134,600

In educational work and administration the United Presbyterian institutions compare favorably with the best church schools. While the majority of them are not large, they are managed with economy and their activities are conducted with considerable regard for thoroughness. With the exception of two or three in eastern Tennessee, they are all well located. The six schools in Alabama are all in Wilcox County, forming a county system of private schools. The unusual development of these schools in this one county is probably due to the interest and ability of a Scotchman,

¹ Board of Freedmen's Missions, 209 Anderson Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.; secretary, J. W. Witherspoon.

member of the United Presbyterian Church, who settled in the county soon after the Civil War.

General statistics.—The total annual income for current expenses is \$88,512, and the value of property is \$455,600. The attendance is 2,870, of whom 2,470 are elementary, 370 secondary, and 30 collegiate. All the schools have elementary pupils, and seven schools maintain secondary classes. Only Knoxville College offers instruction of college grade. The total number of teachers is 166, of whom 44 are white and 122, or 73 per cent, are colored; 46 are men and 120, or 72 per cent, women; and 108, or 65 per cent, are teachers of academic subjects.

The proportion of colored teachers is large, but, in view of the location and type of these schools, it is probable that the present division is necessary. Any increase in the proportion of colored teachers should be seriously questioned. It is suggested that the experience of other church boards should be consulted on this problem. The percentage of women teachers is above the average. The emphasis on industrial courses is somewhat more marked than in other church schools. The provision for instruction in gardening and agriculture is by no means sufficient, however, for the rural masses of the communities in which these schools are located.

Administration.—Much of the success of the colored schools of the United Presbyterian Church is due to the ability and faithfulness of Dr. Witherspoon, whose long service forms a notable contribution to religious and educational work. In 1915 the Board of Freedmen's Missions published the Fifty-fifth Annual Report of its activities. The time and consideration which this board of conscientious business men and ministers devote to the management of the affairs of the schools under their care are indicated by the fact that the board holds regular monthly meetings for the transaction of business pertaining to the schools.

Recommendations.—1. That the church continue its support of the institutions for the education and improvement of the Negroes.

2. That a systematic study of all the schools be undertaken by the leading educators of the United Presbyterian Church. Suggestions as to methods may be obtained from the Methodist and Congregational commissions that have recently reported concerning educational work.

3. That the corresponding secretary be aided by an associate officer who shall visit the schools and superintend their activities. In view of the influence of Knoxville College on all the schools, it might well be desirable for the president of the institution to be given sufficient assistance to cooperate with the corresponding secretary in the field work.

4. That effort be made to establish closer relations with the public-school systems of the communities in which the church schools are located. Possibly some of the smaller schools in Wilcox County can be transferred to the public authorities and the church aid given to supplement the public appropriations. This arrangement is also worth considering for the schools of East Tennessee.

5. That a system of accounting be adopted in all the schools and a systematic audit made by a visiting auditor. Inventories of the properties should be on file in the Pittsburgh office.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

MISCELLANEOUS WHITE DENOMINATIONS.

There are a number of miscellaneous denominational schools maintained by white boards. The principal facts concerning these schools are presented in the following table:

MISCELLANEOUS DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS—WHITE BOARDS.

Name.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.			
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
Total.....	12	6	6	1,570	1,362	194	81
Christian Advent Church.....	1		1	60	60		
Christian Alliance.....	1	1		71	62	9	
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	3	1	2	194	194		
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	1	1		202	82	106	14
Presbyterian Church South.....	1	1		51	30	21	
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	1		1	95	95		
Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	1	1		705	677	28	
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	2	1	1	136	106	30	
Universalist Church.....	1		1	56	56		

Name.	Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	81	37	44	\$58,717	\$387,265
Christian Advent Church.....	3		3	1,500	2,500
Christian Alliance.....	9	9		1,476	33,000
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	12		12	4,187	75,000
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	19	6	13	23,050	125,000
Presbyterian Church South.....	5	5		7,300	51,000
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	2		2	300	2,000
Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	17	7	10	7,300	52,500
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	11	10	1	12,404	42,765
Universalist Church.....	3		3	1,200	3,500

Many of the schools of this group represent churches with considerable wealth. Of special interest are the two institutions maintained by white church boards of the South. Paine College of Augusta is maintained by the Methodist Episcopal Church South. This institution is the largest of the group. The other school owned by the South is Stillman Institute maintained by the Presbyterian Church South. Each institute is described in detail in Volume II.

NEGRO CHURCH BOARDS MAINTAINING SCHOOLS.

The work of the Negro church boards is convincing evidence of the determination of the colored people to help themselves. In less than 50 years the Negro churches have acquired school property valued at almost two and one-third millions (\$2,305,054) and they are contributing annually over a third of a million (\$380,933) for the current expenses of the schools which they own. As a promise for the future development of the race, this is a remarkable achievement.

The principal facts concerning these denominational groups and their schools are outlined below:

NEGRO CHURCH BOARDS MAINTAINING SCHOOLS.

Name.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.			
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	Collegiate.
Total.....	153	60	93	17,299	14,686	2,498	115
Baptist local conventions.....	110	31	79	11,250	10,324	926
African Methodist Episcopal.....	17	13	4	3,212	2,096	1,028	88
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	11	9	2	1,207	923	267	17
Colored Methodist Episcopal.....	9	6	3	1,313	1,036	267	10
Five small church boards.....	6	1	5	317	307	10

Name.	Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	828	2	826	\$380,933	\$2,305,054
Baptist local conventions.....	474	2	472	181,914	821,295
African Methodist Episcopal.....	187	187	129,778	800,609
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	77	77	37,600	316,950
Colored Methodist Episcopal.....	72	72	25,991	328,280
Five small church boards.....	18	18	5,650	38,000

SCHOOLS, ATTENDANCE, AND TEACHERS.

The total number of schools owned by Negro church boards is 153, of which 60 are rated as "larger or more important" and 93 as "smaller or less important." The 60 larger schools have sufficient equipment and means to render a valuable service to their communities. The smaller schools are of doubtful educational value. Some of them have been organized to satisfy the ambitions of a church or an individual desiring to manage a school. The total attendance is 17,299, of whom 14,686 are elementary, 2,498 secondary, and 115 collegiate. The number of teachers is 828, of whom 331 are men and 497 are women. Practically 90 per cent of all the teachers are academic. Only 44 are industrial teachers. The employment of only four teachers of gardening and agriculture indicates a failure to understand the needs of a people so largely rural as the Negroes of the Southern States.

GENERAL CONDITION.

While the schools owned by Negro boards are rendering valuable service, it is not to be expected that the pioneer efforts of a race will be made without faults and weaknesses. A few of the schools are administered with economy and skill. Owing to limited means and lack of experience in administrative method, however, many of them are poorly managed. The financial accounting is inadequate. Many of the audits are made by

men without knowledge of bookkeeping. Very few keep accurate records of attendance, enrollment, class standing, and rating as to character and general ability. Many of the schools fail to maintain proper standards of discipline. There is frequently a lack of order and cleanliness in classrooms and especially in the dormitories and dining rooms. Pupils and sometimes teachers are not prompt in class attendance and in other school duties. Buildings and grounds are often badly kept. While this is partly due to a lack of means, many little repairs that might easily be made with hammer, nails, and white wash are overlooked.

The explanation of this condition lies not only in the inexperience of the officers in the schools but also in the lack of a central board with authority to direct the educational and business management of each institution. In the absence of such a board, the general direction has been given to bishops who have been too busy with other matters to give effective attention to the schools. This condition has been accurately described in the following statement by Dr. S. G. Atkins, a former secretary of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church:

Good schools require organization and machinery. The old tradition stopped with episcopacy. I would urge that our board of education be made a real working board to meet at times other than when bishops' meetings are held. Our main object should be to improve our educational system. It is far better to have a smaller number of good schools than a larger number of poor ones. In the matter of education it is quality rather than quantity that counts. Defective education is a thing of very questionable value.

Another element in the situation is the difficulty of finding men of adequate training and experience not only to direct but also to educate church conventions to distinguish between church politicians and men known for their integrity and ability.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. That each denomination appoint a secretary of known integrity and ability and vest in him authority to supervise both the business and educational affairs of the schools.
2. That an adequate system of cost accounting be installed in each school and an annual audit made by a trained accountant who is entirely independent of the denomination.
3. That careful records be kept of enrollment, daily and class attendance, and pupils' standing in study and work.
4. That building operations be undertaken only on the advice of an architect of good standing.
5. That some provision be made in the curriculum for the agricultural education of the large majority of pupils who must live in the rural districts.
6. That effort be made to have regular inspections of educational work and business management both by officers of the State departments of instruction and by the representatives of philanthropic boards.
7. That a policy of concentration be adopted so that a few effective schools may be maintained.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

There are four large Negro denominations and five small organizations which own and maintain one or more schools. The number of church members in each of the larger denominations is as follows: Baptists, 2,270,000; African Methodist Episcopal, 500,000; African Methodist Episcopal Zion, 185,000. The total membership of the other groups is very small.

NEGRO BAPTIST BOARDS.

Though there are several national organizations of Negro Baptists, none of them appear to own or maintain any educational institutions. The schools are owned and directed by State or local organizations or by independent boards of trustees selected from the membership of Baptist churches. The origin of the national and State associations was suggested in the discussion of the white Baptist boards. The local Baptist associations are composed of churches located in one or more counties.

The tendency or habit of the colored Baptists to divide is a serious hindrance to their educational efforts. There are at present two organizations called "National Baptist Conventions." The Baptists of Virginia are divided into two State organizations with two sets of local organizations, dividing even small communities between two Baptist churches. The natural result of associational jealousy is the formation of a large number of weak, poorly equipped schools. The real status of many of them is clearly indicated in the following, quoted from a letter written by a colored woman who is thoroughly familiar with the colored Baptists of the country:

I am inclosing you a list of Baptist schools. Of course, you know that some of these colleges and universities never existed in reality, and some of the institutes and academies live on paper so far as the work is concerned. Most of them are struggling along, but need pressure and even exposure to make them live up to their high-sounding names as well as give to the people value received.

Further testimony to the same effect is given in the following quotations from the report of the Negro Missionary Baptist General Convention of Texas, October, 1915:

It is our observation and experience that no one or two associations can or will successfully operate a school. It is possible, but improbable, for the simple reason that it takes more money than they are willing to give.

Since the practice of indiscriminately starting Baptist schools is wasteful and hurtful, making us less able to meet competition in education work, we raise the question whether it would not be better to have one, two, or three schools wisely located, properly equipped and supported, than to have a dozen or more so poorly equipped that they can not render a high grade of service.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY BAPTIST LOCAL CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Larger or more important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Neg.		
Total.....	110	31	79	11,250	10,324	926		474	2	472	\$181,914	\$821,295
Alabama.....	14	2	12	1,613	1,575	38		51		51	14,087	53,300
Arkansas.....	7	3	4	606	554	52		27		27	10,026	40,350
District of Columbia.....	1	1		71	42	29		11	2	9	8,981	42,500
Florida.....	3	1	2	382	353	29		12		12	5,006	35,000
Georgia.....	12	3	9	951	903	48		47		47	14,224	52,400
Kentucky.....	2		2	18	18			2		2	1,500	8,200
Louisiana.....	16	3	13	2,228	2,148	80		62		62	21,551	75,300
Maryland.....	2		2	26	16	10		5		5		
Mississippi.....	12	3	9	1,837	1,609	138		58		58	10,751	81,500
North Carolina.....	15	1	14	800	703	16		39		39	15,040	60,300
South Carolina.....	9	4	5	1,202	1,030	160		52		52	15,192	90,000
Tennessee.....	1	1		77	77			5		5	1,000	5,000
Texas.....	7	5	2	788	614	174		56		56	28,140	167,725
Virginia.....	0	4	5	642	496	146		47		47	25,826	103,630

Schools.—The various associations of Negro Baptists own and maintain 110 schools, of which 31 are rated as "larger or more important" and 79 as "small or less important." Some of the 31 schools are classified as "more important" on the basis of quality of work rather than on size of plant. The majority of the 79 "smaller" schools are of comparatively little value educationally. Many of them are spending money which could be much more effectively used at the larger schools. These are the little schools which the report of the Negro Baptists of Texas so vigorously condemns in the statement quoted above.

Financial status, attendance, and teachers.—The total annual income for current expenses is \$181,914, of which \$99,010 is for the 31 larger schools and \$82,874 for the 79 smaller schools. The value of property is \$821,295, of which \$539,545 is in the smaller schools. According to these figures, the average income of the larger schools is only about \$3,200 and the average value of plant is about \$17,000. The average income of the smaller schools is about \$1,000 and the average value of plant about \$3,600.

The total attendance is 11,250 pupils, of whom 10,324 are elementary and 926 secondary. The number of teachers is 474, of whom 159 are male and 315 female. There are only 20 teachers of industrial courses and two teachers of agriculture. The 79 smaller schools have only four industrial teachers.

Recommendations.—The first impression made by the foregoing facts is one of surprise and admiration that the masses of the Negro Baptists have given so liberally for the support of their church schools. The second impression is that of regret that money contributed by people of such limited means could not be more effectively used. Most of the general recommendations made for all Negro church boards (p. 152) apply with special force to the schools for the Negro Baptists. It is particularly important—

1. That the Negro Baptists concentrate their contributions on a few schools, so that each school may do better work.
2. That close cooperation be developed with the State and county departments of education and with the schools maintained by the white Baptists.

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL SCHOOLS.¹

So far as the facts could be determined the educational department of the African Methodist Episcopal Church does not have such authority as the American Missionary Association or the Baptist Home Mission Society or the various freedmen's aid societies. The relation to the schools seems to be largely advisory. Authority and ownership are vested in the trustees of the various institutions. The situation is indicated by the following quotation from the 1916 report of the educational secretary:

After having met the board secretaries of education convened by the United States Department [Bureau] of Education, and embracing all the secretaries of denominations doing educational work among Negroes, I am convinced that we must rearrange our educational work in some way so as to comport with the general sentiment and practice of the times. I have studiously gone over our educational system and have compared it with other denominational systems, and while we have done remarkably well, under the existing circumstances, we must now come to a better adjustment and arrangement for the employment of methods more modern. I therefore make the following recommendations, which were presented to the bishops' council and approved by that body, and if adopted by the general conference now in session, will heal many of the defects and put us in line for certain recognition which is now being denied. That the general board of education be empowered to—

- (a) Classify and standardize our various schools, colleges, and universities.
- (b) Confirm or reject all applicants for positions in our system of schools.
- (c) Establish and enforce uniform curricula in all schools under the general board of education.
- (d) Install an efficient system of bookkeeping such as the times demand.

The statistics of schools of the African Methodist Episcopal Church are summarized below:

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total	17	13	4	3,212	2,096	1,028	88	187	18	18	\$129,778	\$800,600
Alabama	1	1		265	208	57		13		13	6,500	35,600
Arkansas	1	1		219	128	91		14		14	8,416	29,622
Florida	2	1	1	343	264	79		17		17	18,901	41,500
Georgia	3	3		710	402	208	10	41		41	17,448	180,300
Kentucky	1		1	33	32	1		3		3	1,500	7,000
Louisiana	1	1		142	116	26		6		6	1,500	10,150
Mississippi	2	1	1	282	202	80		15		15	8,460	47,000
North Carolina	1	1		176	124	52		12		12	9,046	61,500
South Carolina	2	1	1	402	316	146		21		21	16,902	82,500
Tennessee	1	1		101	78	23		11		11	4,737	48,400
Texas	1	1		286	213	60	13	15		15	8,064	97,000
Northern States	1	1		193	13	115	65	19		19	28,314	157,037

¹ Educational department of African Methodist Episcopal Church: secretary, N. S. Jackson, Waco, Tex.

Financial status.—The various conferences of the African Methodist Episcopal Church own and maintain 17 schools, of which 13 are rated in this report as "larger or more important" and 4 as "smaller or less important." The total income for current expenses is \$129,778 and the total value of property is \$800,609. On the basis of income four of the larger schools have incomes under \$5,000, six between \$5,000 and \$15,000, and three between \$15,000 and \$30,000. According to property, three schools have a valuation under \$25,000, five between \$25,000 and \$50,000, three between \$50,000 and \$100,000, and two between \$150,000 and \$250,000.

Attendance and teachers.—The attendance was 3,212 pupils, of whom 2,096 were elementary, 1,028 secondary, and 88 collegiate. Three institutions offer college courses. Two of these, however, are seriously hampered both by the inadequate preparation of their pupils and by limited facilities. The number of teachers was 187, of whom 98 are men and 89 women. The number of industrial teachers is very small and the agricultural instruction is negligible.

General conclusions.—As an indication of the progress of the colored people, the extent of these educational facilities and the character of the organization are exceedingly satisfactory. The attitude of the bishops' council has been outlined in the quotation from the report of the secretary. In addition to the recommendations made by the secretary, it is urged that the officers of this denomination give careful consideration to the experience of all church boards as they have been described herein or through conferences with their officers.

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL ZION SCHOOLS.¹

The powers of this board are largely advisory. At a recent meeting of the general conference of the church action was taken to unify the school system and to increase the power of the board of education.

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL ZION CHURCH.

State	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Larger or important.	Smaller or less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	Colleg.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	11	9	2	1,207	923	267	17	77	77	\$37,600	\$316,950
Alabama.....	1	1	137	113	24	8	8	4,074	25,450
Arkansas.....	1	1	77	68	9	5	5	1,047	6,200
Kentucky.....	1	1	44	24	20	6	6	2,282	12,600
North Carolina.....	4	3	1	464	291	156	17	32	32	22,518	210,450
South Carolina.....	2	2	422	373	49	17	17	3,640	20,000
Tennessee.....	1	1	18	18	2	2	500	5,500
Virginia.....	1	1	45	36	9	7	7	3,000	18,750

¹ Board of education of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church: president, Bishop C. R. Harris, Salisbury, N. C. secretary, J. W. Martin, St. Louis, Mo.

Financial status.—The conferences of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church own and maintain 11 schools, of which 9 are rated as "larger or more important" and 2 as "less important." The total income for current expenses is \$37,600 and the value of property is \$316,950. Livingstone College in North Carolina represents over half of the total of income and property.

Attendance and teachers.—The total attendance was 1,207 pupils, of whom 923 were elementary, 267 secondary, and 17 in college subjects. The teachers were 77 in number, of whom 36 were men and 41 women. The emphasis on industrial courses has been small and the agricultural instruction has been unimportant.

General conclusion.—The general standards of educational work have been fairly good. This is especially true of the smaller schools. There are now indications that Livingstone College will soon be reorganized on an effective basis. In view of the prominence of this institution in the educational work of the church, it is desirable that its influence shall be similar to that of Knoxville College on the small schools of the United Presbyterian Church. The satisfactory development of African Methodist Episcopal Zion schools requires the adoption of the policies outlined in the general discussion of all Negro church boards.

COLORED METHODIST EPISCOPAL SCHOOLS.¹

The General Board of Education of the African Methodist Episcopal Church has only recently been organized. Its functions with regard to the schools are advisory. The secretary is, however, doing much to improve the methods of administration and the standards of educational work. His point of view is well stated in the following quotation from his annual report:

The strongest plea for help is first-class work. Our schools must run on business principles and not on sentiment. We must arrange the classification and standards of our schools so that they will be each what its name indicates—not professing to do what we do not do. A good grammar school is greater than a poor high school; a good academy more desirable than a sorry college; a well-conducted college is preferable to a sham university. We must meet present-day needs and demands if we expect to get money.

A very important fact with regard to this denomination and its schools is the relation to the Methodist Episcopal Church South. The Colored Methodist Episcopal Church² was founded through the missionary interest of the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church³ in the former slave States. Through this interest, the Methodist Episcopal Church South maintains Paine College at Augusta, Ga., and contributes annual sums to several of the African Methodist Episcopal schools. In the cooperation now being developed, the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church has been ably represented by Dr. John M. Moore, the secretary of the mission department, and Dr. Anderson, the secretary of education.

¹ General Board of Education of African Methodist Episcopal Church; general secretary, James A. Bray, Birmingham, Ala.

² White.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

COLORED METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

States.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Larger or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	9	6	3	1,313	1,036	267	10	72	...	72	\$25,991	\$328,200
Alabama.....	2	1	1	300	245	55	...	17	...	17	3,954	60,400
Georgia.....	2	1	1	148	140	8	...	7	...	7	2,300	8,500
Louisiana.....	1	1	...	164	146	18	...	7	...	7	2,400	12,000
Mississippi.....	1	1	...	242	200	42	...	12	...	12	3,672	87,000
Oklahoma.....	1	131	131	4	...	4	1,300	1,300
Tennessee.....	1	1	...	218	139	69	10	15	...	15	8,600	89,000
Texas.....	1	1	...	110	35	75	...	10	...	10	3,765	70,000

Financial status.—The conferences of the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church own and maintain nine schools, of which six are rated as "larger or more important" and three as "smaller or less important." The total income for current expenses is \$25,991 and the value of property is \$328,200. Lane College in Tennessee is the only institution with an income of over \$5,000 a year. Three schools have property valuations of over \$50,000.

Attendance and teachers.—The total attendance is 1,313 pupils, of whom 1,036 are elementary, 267 secondary, and 10 collegiate. The number of teachers is 72, of whom 32 are men and 40 are women.¹ The provision for industrial courses is very inadequate and the instruction in agriculture is negligible.

General conclusion.—The reorganization of these schools now under way and the increasing cooperation with the Methodist Episcopal Church South (white) are very hopeful signs. It is very desirable that the African Methodist Episcopal Church adopt and enforce the policies outlined by Secretary Bray in his annual report for 1915.

MISCELLANEOUS COLORED DENOMINATIONS.

Only one of the schools maintained by churches in the miscellaneous group is rated as "larger or more important." The other five are of comparatively little educational value. The following is a summary of these schools:

¹ These figures do not include Paine College, taught largely by southern white men and women.

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MISCELLANEOUS DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS—NEGRO BOARDS.

Denominational boards.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.				Teachers.			Income for current expenses.	Value of property.
	Total.	Large or important.	Small, less important.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.	Total.	White.	Negro.		
Total.....	6	1	5	317	307	10		18		18	\$5,650	\$38,000
Free Will Baptist Church.....	1	1		60	58	2		4		4	1,700	15,000
Methodist Episcopal local conventions.....	2		2	22	22			4		4	450	6,000
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.....	1		1	25	25			2		2	1,500	7,000
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	1		1	130	122	8		6		6	1,500	10,000
Colored Local Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	1		1	80	80			2		2	500	

IX. EDUCATIONAL FUNDS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

The funds and associations interested in the education of Negroes in the United States differ widely in purpose and resources. Some are rendering a remarkable educational service not only to the Negroes but also to the South and the whole Nation. A number of the agencies described are devoting only a part of their resources to Negro education. A few of those included are of comparatively little importance. The arrangement in this chapter is based on the character and extent of work done by each fund and association. On this basis the chapter is divided into six parts: (1) Educational funds; (2) Religious organizations; (3) Educational associations; (4) Southern organizations; (5) Libraries; (6) Hospitals and nurse-training schools. In listing the organizations included in each group the plan has been to place close to each other those engaged in similar work.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS.¹

This group includes all funds of any importance that are devoting part or all their income to the improvement of educational facilities for Negroes. Those devoting only parts of their income to this purpose are the General Education Board and the Phelps-Stokes Fund. In addition to the funds described in this chapter reference should here be made to the Carnegie Foundation. The interest of Mr. Carnegie in Negro education is well known. His gifts have been large and significant. The activities of the Carnegie Foundation, however, have been such that little systematic study could be devoted to Negro education.

Of the nine funds described, five have developed a correlation of activities that adds much to the value of their work. These five are the General Education Board, the Slater Fund, the Jeanes Fund, the Phelps-Stokes Fund, and the Rosenwald rural school building donations. This correlation of effort probably originates in the conviction, common to all of them, that the educational progress of the Negroes in the United States requires the increasing cooperation of public authorities in the Southern States.

The Daniel Hand Fund and the Stewart Missionary Foundation are discussed in this chapter, but their incomes are largely expended in connection with the activities of church boards. The Daniel Hand Fund constitutes a considerable part of the endowment of the American Missionary Association and the Stewart Missionary Foundation is closely affiliated with the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Church. The Miner Fund and the Cushing Fund have small endowments, the former about \$40,000 and the latter about \$33,500. Their affairs have been managed with but little or no regard to the work of other funds.

¹ Other benefactions not treated here include: The "African third of the John Parrish Fund"; the Avery fund; the Vilas bequest, providing for scholarships at the University of Wisconsin; and the John McKee fund.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD.¹

The guiding principle of the General Education Board in all its efforts in behalf of Negro education is cooperation, first of all with public authorities and second, with agencies that are thoroughly constructive in purpose.² The policies of the board are based upon a study both of educational facilities and community needs. Its activities have included the improvement of country life through farm demonstration work and boys' and girls' clubs in such projects as the cultivation and canning of vegetables; encouraging secondary schools to adapt their program to the needs of democratic society; and aiding colleges and universities to increase their efficiency and broaden their curriculum so as to provide adequate emphasis on modern problems. While the sum spent on educational efforts in behalf of Negroes forms but a comparatively small part of the total appropriations made by the Board, the activities encouraged or maintained have been effective in the development of cooperation with the public-school authorities and in the improvement of both private and public schools for Negroes. The board does not make contributions for the endowment of Negro schools, but has made annual contributions for expenses which, if capitalized, would represent an endowment of approximately \$2,000,000.

State supervisors of Negro rural schools.—Perhaps the most important form of cooperation on the part of the General Education Board in behalf of Negro education is with the State departments of public instruction in the appointment and support of State supervisors of Negro schools. Ten Southern States have made such appointments. These supervisors are capable southern white men who are devoting their energy with much success to the advancement of Negro schools. Their efforts have already resulted in small but significant increases in public appropriations, a better attitude toward Negro education, and greater cooperation between public and private institutions.

Cooperation with private agencies.—Another important contribution of the General Education Board has been correlation of effort with private funds, church boards, and individual institutions. The Jeanes Fund has received financial aid and encouragement

¹ Office, 67 Broadway, New York City. Officers: Chairman, Frederick T. Gates; secretary, Wallace Buttrick; assistant secretaries, Eben Charles Sage and Abraham Flexner; treasurer, Louis G. Myers; assistant treasurer, L. M. Dashiell; members: Frederick T. Gates, Walter H. Page, John D. Rockefeller, jr., Albert Shaw, Wallace Buttrick, Starr J. Murphy, Edwin A. Alderman, Hollis B. Prissell, Harry Pratt Judson, Charles W. Eliot, Andrew Carnegie, Edgar L. Marston, Wickliffe Rose, Jerome D. Greene, Anna Phelps Stokes, Abraham Flexner, George E. Vincent.

² The first permanent endowment, received June 30, 1905, and amounting to \$10,000,000, was expressly designed to furnish an income "to be distributed to, or used for the benefit of, for such purposes, and under such conditions, or employed in such other ways as the board may deem best adapted to promote a comprehensive system of higher education in the United States." In February, 1907, a further gift of \$35,000,000 was made, "one-third to be added to the permanent endowment of the board two-thirds to be applied to such specific objects within the corporate purposes of the board." On July 7, 1909, Mr. Rockefeller increased his benefactions by the gift of an additional \$10,000,000. At the present time the board's resources are valued at \$33,994,757, of which \$30,918,064 is general endowment and \$3,076,693 reserve fund. The gross income from these funds for the year 1913-14 was \$3,417,080. (The General Education Board, 1905-1914.)

The powers of the board in the use of the funds given to it are indicated by the following paragraph from a letter written by Dr. Buttrick to Mr. Rockefeller:

"The board begs to acknowledge also the receipt of your personal communication of June 29, 1909, wherein you authorize and empower the board and its successors, under wise and proper regulations, whenever in their discretion it shall seem wise, to distribute the principal of this fund and all other endowment funds hitherto contributed by you to this board.

The board accepts this release from the obligation to hold these funds in perpetuity as an endowment, with a very clear appreciation of the wisdom, the long look ahead, and the faith in the future manifested in the authorization. The members of the General Education Board, as a body corporate and as individuals, are like-minded in their understanding and in their own determination to use the power you have given them for the public welfare with patience, judgment, and justice. (The General Education Board, 1905-1914, pp. 252-253.)

³ Since its establishment up to June 30, 1915, the Board has contributed for education \$16,864,148. Of this amount, \$811,782 was contributed to Negro schools, and \$60,321 was appropriated for the support of the board's agents for Negro rural schools. (Negro Year Book, 1916-1917.)

in the excellent work of placing industrial supervisors and teachers in many counties throughout the Southern States. The Slater Fund has been similarly assisted in the development of the county training schools. In the study of Negro education, the agents of the Phelps-Stokes fund not only had access to the board's valuable records but were enabled to call upon the board's representatives for information and counsel. Church boards of education and individual schools have received substantial appropriations from the board and valuable suggestions on educational method from its educational experts.

Homemakers' clubs for Negro girls.—Homemakers' clubs have been formed in nine Southern States. These clubs are composed of colored girls and women who are taught the essentials of rural homemaking, including the cultivation of a garden and the canning of fruits and vegetables. The movement has been very successful in the inculcation of sound ideas of sanitation, thrift, and morality. Hundreds of clubs have been formed under the general direction of the State supervisors and the more immediate care of the Jeanes Fund county teachers.

Farm-demonstration movement.—The farm-demonstration movement is undoubtedly the most important educational effort which the General Education Board has encouraged for the improvement of white and colored people. While the influence of the movement has been primarily among white farmers, its future possibilities for the colored people are so significant that a description of the plan must be included herein. The purpose of the movement is the increase of the productivity of the soil. The plan was originated by Dr. Seaman A. Knapp about 1903, in order to enable the farmers of Texas to combat the ravages of the bollweevil. The fundamental element in the plan is Dr. Knapp's principle that the most effective way of teaching good farming is to prevail upon one farmer in every neighborhood to cultivate an acre of his land according to scientific methods of agriculture. The effect of such a plan has been that the farmer with the demonstration acre extends the plan to the remainder of his farm and the neighboring farmers soon follow his example. It has been shown that such an experimental plot is much more effective than the distribution of printed matter or even explanations by traveling lecturers.

When the remarkable possibilities of this simple method had been demonstrated, the General Education Board entered into cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture to extend the movement throughout the Southern States and especially in the section suffering from the bollweevil. As a result of this cooperation, begun in 1906, the board made increasing appropriations each year until the sum for 1913-14 had become \$252,000. In that year the Federal Government also appropriated \$375,000 and the States and counties gave approximately \$490,000. In 1915 the work was taken over by the Federal Government and the appropriation was considerably increased.

The economic and educational significance of the farm-demonstration movement is now gradually becoming understood. Communities have lifted themselves out of poverty. Schools and churches and roads have been built. The general average of community welfare has been elevated in many rural districts. School men have been impressed with the value of actual demonstration in instruction and the schools are requiring that pupils shall "learn to do by doing."

NEGRO EDUCATION.

JOHN F. SLATER FUND.¹

Frequent reference to the Slater Fund is made in the chapter on the history of Negro education. The Fund was established in 1882 with a gift of \$1,000,000 by John F. Slater, of Connecticut, for the purpose of "uplifting the lately emancipated population of the Southern States and their prosperity." In recognition of the public spirit of the donor, the United States Congress gave him a vote of thanks and a medal. At the time of the final distribution of the Peabody Fund in 1914, the Peabody trustees voted to transfer a sum amounting to about \$350,000 to the John F. Slater Fund, "the income to be used for improving the rural schools for the Negro race." The present endowment of the Slater Fund is about \$1,750,000.

In 1915-16 the Slater Fund appropriated \$67,250 for Negro schools located in 13 Southern States. Of this amount \$25,425 was given to supplement the work of institutions owned by State or county authorities. The total number of schools receiving aid in 1915 was 68, of which 17 are county training schools and 19 are owned by city, county, or State. Approximately \$3,000 has been given to aid summer schools for teachers.

The general purpose of the appropriations made by the trustees of the Slater Fund has been the encouragement of industrial courses. The number of schools receiving aid has varied from year to year. The following statement indicates the number of schools and the amounts appropriated in different periods:

Time.	Number of schools.	Amount.
1882-83.....	12	\$16,250
1883-84.....	18	17,106
1884-85.....	29	36,764
1889-90.....	37	42,910
1894-95.....	16	42,400
1900-1901.....	11	43,330
1904-5.....	27	53,550
1909-10.....	40	69,750
1914-15.....	68	69,250

The variation in the number of schools reflects the different policies of the fund as well as the changes in the amount of money to be distributed. The present policy is that of increasing cooperation with public-school authorities in all efforts to improve and increase the supply of public-school teachers. Dr. Dillard, the director of the Slater Fund and the executive officer of the Jeanes Fund, has been very successful in arousing the interest of public authorities in Negro schools. Realizing that the majority of elementary-school teachers receive their education in their own or neighboring county, he is directing as much as possible of the Slater Fund to the improvement of public schools centrally located in the counties, so that courses of training for teachers may be established. The usual conditions observed in the organization of these schools are, first, that the property shall belong to the State or county; second, that an appropriation of at least \$750 shall be made annually by the county for the maintenance; third, that at least eight grades of instruction shall be provided, including some industrial

¹ Director, James H. Dillard, Charlottesville, Va.; field directors, B. C. Caldwell, Natchitoches, La.; and W. T. B. Williams, Hampton Institute, Va. Trustees: President, William A. Slater; vice president, Richard H. Williams; secretary, James H. Dillard; members, John A. Stewart, Cleveland H. Dodge, David F. Houston, William Lawrence, Charles Scribner, Fairfax Harrison, John M. Glenn, Francis P. Venable.

work and simple instruction in teaching methods. In 1912 there were three schools of this character. In 1915 the number had increased to 27, and in 1917 it was 44.

• ANNA T. JEANES FUND.¹

In 1907 Miss Anna T. Jeanes, of Philadelphia, gave \$1,000,000 for the purpose of aiding rural schools for Negroes. The trustee board in charge of this fund is composed of five southern men, five northern men, and five men of the colored race.² In 1915 the trustees expended \$34,475 for the improvement of Negro rural schools in Southern States. Practically all of this money is used to pay the expenses of county supervisors and industrial teachers. These are usually young colored women who visit the public schools of the counties for the purpose of aiding and encouraging the schools in all phases of their work. The more important service of these traveling teachers, working under the direction of the county superintendent, is to introduce into the small country schools simple home industries; to give talks and lessons on sanitation, personal cleanliness, etc.; to encourage the improvement of schoolhouses and school grounds; and to conduct gardening clubs and other kinds of clubs for the betterment of the school and the neighborhood.

The teachers are appointed by the county superintendent and their work is supervised by that officer. Effort is made by the representatives of the Jeanes Fund to have the county authorities and the colored people undertake as much as possible of the salary and expenses of these teachers. In 1913, the counties contributed from public funds for this purpose, \$3,400; in 1914, \$6,255; in 1915, \$12,183; and in 1916, \$17,913. In 1915-16 Jeanes Fund teachers were maintained in 164 counties distributed through

¹ The origin of the Jeanes Fund is so significant of the spirit and purpose of its present policy that space must here be taken to relate some of the incidents connected with it. In 1906 Dr. Frissell appealed to Miss Anna T. Jeanes for a contribution to the work of Hampton. Miss Jeanes was an elderly Quaker lady of Philadelphia. As Dr. Frissell described the hardships of the teachers in rural schools, she said: "Thee interests me" and proceeded to write a check to aid the work of small rural schools. Dr. Frissell, expecting to receive not more than a hundred dollars, looked at the check and saw, to his great surprise, that it was for \$10,000. He said: "Well, you certainly are interested. Would you like to have Booker Washington call on you to explain the need of small schools in Alabama?" Miss Jeanes replied that she would and soon afterwards she gave another ten thousand dollars to Dr. Washington. At the suggestion of Mr. George Foster Peabody, then the treasurer of the General Education Board, she gave \$100,000 more to be used according to plans to be determined upon by Dr. Frissell and Dr. Washington.

When she was convinced of the successful use of this gift, she said to Dr. Frissell: "I am going to show thee my will." Reading it he saw that she had bequeathed a large portion of her estate for the improvement of little country schools for Negro children. The will also provided that the funds were to be administered by a trustee board to be appointed by Dr. Frissell and Dr. Washington. Miss Jeanes said: "I would give it now if I could." Dr. Frissell assured her that it could be done and asked whom would she like to have on the board. She replied: "Andrew Carnegie."

Accordingly Miss Jeanes decided to carry out, while living, her intention of giving an endowment fund of a million dollars to assist village and rural schools for colored people in the southern United States, and the sum of \$1,000,000 was turned over to Booker T. Washington and Dr. Frissell for this purpose. Plans for forming the board were immediately decided upon. Mr. Carnegie, Dr. Washington, and Dr. Frissell organized a board of trustees which consisted of five southern white men, five northern white men, and five Negroes. Mr. Taft, then President of the United States, became a member of the board, and Dr. Dillard, of Virginia, was elected as the executive officer.

When the arrangements were complete, Miss Jeanes consented to see a few of the members of the board. This meeting was dramatic in its simplicity. There were present Mr. George Foster Peabody, President Taft, Dr. Dillard, Dr. Frissell, and Dr. Washington. Miss Jeanes was very feeble; her arm, swollen with pain, was supported by pillows. When she had signed the papers, she said to Dr. Frissell and to Dr. Washington in turn: "Dost thee remember when thee came and I gave thee \$10,000 for the little country schools? And then I gave thee \$100,000 more. And now I am giving all for the little schools. This is a great privilege. I am just a poor woman, and I gave it not to save my soul, but just because I wanted to."

² President and director: James Hardy Dillard, Charlottesville, Va. Members of the board: David C. Barrow, Athens, Ga.; Andrew Carnegie, New York, N. Y.; John T. Emlen, Philadelphia, Pa.; H. B. Frissell, Hampton, Va.; Belton Gilreath, Birmingham, Ala.; H. T. Keating, Kansas City, Kans.; George McAneny, New York, N. Y.; Samuel C. Mitchell, Newark, N. J.; Robert R. Moton, Tuskegee, Ala.; J. C. Napier, Nashville, Tenn.; Walter H. Page, New York, N. Y.; George Foster Peabody, New York, N. Y.; R. L. Smith, Waco, Tex.; William H. Taft, New Haven, Conn.; Emmett J. Scott, Tuskegee, Ala., and Talcott Williams, Philadelphia, Pa.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

14 Southern States. It is to be hoped that all of these States will follow the example of Maryland in its provision of State aid, so that every county with a considerable number of Negroes may have county industrial teachers.

THE PHELPS-STOKES FUND.¹

The endowment of the Phelps-Stokes Fund is over \$900,000. Over half of the income has been spent to maintain several projects pertaining to Negro education. The more important of these are:

1. Cooperation with the United States Bureau of Education in preparing this report on Negro education.
2. The establishment of fellowships at the University of Virginia and the University of Georgia. The sum of \$12,500 has been given each of these universities for the permanent endowment of a research fellowship on the following conditions:

The university shall appoint annually a fellow in sociology for the study of the Negro. He shall pursue advanced studies under the direction of the department of sociology, economics, education, or history, as may be determined in each case by the president. The fellowship shall yield \$500 and shall, after four years, be restricted to graduate students.

Each fellow shall prepare a paper or thesis embodying the result of his investigations which shall be published by the university with assistance from the income of the fund.

3. The establishment of a fund at the Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., in accordance with the following vote:

Voted, that \$10,000 be given to the Peabody College for Teachers to establish a fund for the visitation of Negro schools and colleges, the income to be used to enable the teachers, administrative officers, and students of the Peabody College to come into direct and helpful contact with the actual work of representative institutions of Negro education.

4. Assistance to the Southern University Race Commission by an annual appropriation for traveling expenses.

5. Appropriations for constructive movements, such as the teaching of home and school gardening, the educational use of school dormitory and dining room, the installation of adequate financial and school records, and the dissemination of advice on the construction and care of buildings and grounds.

ROSENWALD RURAL SCHOOL BUILDING DONATIONS.

In 1914 Julius Rosenwald, of Chicago, announced through Tuskegee Institute that he would give money to assist in the erection of rural school buildings for Negroes in the South. According to the terms of the announcement, Mr. Rosenwald agreed to give any rural community a sum not exceeding \$300 for the erection of a school building for Negroes, provided the people of the community would raise from public funds or from their own resources a sum equal to that given by him. It was further specified that total sums in each case must be sufficient to erect and furnish one school building.

¹ President, I. N. Phelps Stokes, 200 William Street, New York, N. Y.; Secretary, Anson Phelps Stokes, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. Trustees: Bishop David H. Greer, New York, N. Y.; Olivia E. P. Stokes, New York, N. Y.; Mrs. Robert Hunter, Noroton Heights, Conn.; Helen Phelps Stokes, New York, N. Y.; John Sherman Hoyt, New York, N. Y.; I. N. Phelps Stokes, New York, N. Y.; Francis Louis Stude, New York, N. Y.; Edward W. Sheldon, New York, N. Y.; Henry Sloan Coffin, Union Theological Seminary, New York, N. Y., and Anson Phelps Stokes, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

The essential facts concerning the Phelps-Stokes Fund are stated in the introduction to this bulletin.

Up to June 30, 1916, Mr. Rosenwald had given \$44,718 toward promoting rural schoolhouse building. To meet Mr. Rosenwald's contributions the Negroes in the communities where these schoolhouses were erected have contributed \$61,951; from the public funds of the States, \$21,525 has been appropriated; and white citizens have given \$8,820. Through Mr. Rosenwald's benefactions, 142 rural schoolhouses for Negroes have been erected, as follows: In Alabama, 107; North Carolina, 11; Georgia, 8; Arkansas, 6; South Carolina, 1; Tennessee, 5; Mississippi, 2; and Virginia, 2.

THE DANIEL HAND EDUCATIONAL FUND.¹

The total amount of the endowment of the Daniel Hand fund is approximately \$1,500,000 and the income in 1915 was \$69,000. This income is spent under the direction of the officers of the American Missionary Association for the maintenance of educational work in the schools of that association.

In 1888 Daniel Hand, of Guilford, Conn., gave \$1,000,000 as a permanent fund, "the income of which shall be used for the purpose of educating needy and indigent people of African descent residing, or who may hereafter reside, in the recent slave States of the United States, sometimes called the Southern States." When Mr. Hand died, in 1891, he left the residue of his fortune, amounting to \$500,000, to be added to his original gift.

STEWART MISSIONARY FOUNDATION FOR AFRICA.²

The total endowment of the Stewart Missionary Foundation is \$110,000. The income is used to provide classroom instruction on missions at Gammou Theological Seminary; to issue a monthly journal, "The Foundation," devoted to the awakening of an interest in missions; and to maintain a lecturer who travels among Negro schools lecturing on missions.

This fund was given in 1894 by the Rev. W. F. Stewart and his wife to establish missionary training in Gammou Theological Seminary. Mr. Stewart had been a missionary in the Methodist Episcopal Church, and he was eager to arouse a strong interest in missions among Negro youth.

MINER FUND (INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF COLORED YOUTH³).

The Miner Fund has property valued at \$40,000 and the annual income is about \$2,100. This income is used for the aid of the Manassas Industrial Institute for Colored Youth of Virginia and for the Colored Social Settlement of Washington, D. C.

¹This fund is administered by the American Missionary Association, 387 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Daniel Hand was born in Madison, Conn., July 16, 1801. When 16 years of age he went to Augusta, Ga., under the direction of his second brother residing there, whom he succeeded in business. Mr. Hand remained in some part of the Southern Confederacy during the entire war. His partner, Mr. George W. Williams, who was conducting a branch of the business at Charleston, S. C., protected the capital of Mr. Hand from the confiscation seriously threatened, in view of his being a northern man of undisguised antislavery sentiments. After the war, when Mr. Hand came North, Mr. Williams adjusted the business, made up the account and paid over to Mr. Hand his portion of the long-invested capital and its accumulations. Bereaved of wife and children for many years, his benevolent impulses led Mr. Hand to form plans to use his large wealth for the benefit of his fellow men.

²Secretary, D. D. Martin, Gammou Theological Seminary, Atlanta, Ga.; trustees, E. L. Stewart, Chicago, and G. Grant Stewart, Alhambra, Cal.

³Address, Washington, D. C. Officers and trustees: President, William L. Brown; vice president, John Van Schalk, jr.; secretary, Emily J. Brigham; treasurer, Henry C. Gauss; Mrs. Caleb Miller; Samuel R. Bond; Winfield S. Montgomery; Mary K. Porter; and Thomas Jesse Jones.

The fund is named after Miss Myrtilla Miner, of Brooklyn, N. Y., who in 1851 established a normal school for colored girls of Washington. In 1862 she incorporated the school as the "Institution for the Education of Colored Youth." The first property purchased by the institution was in the square now occupied by the British embassy. Later this lot was sold and another purchased, on which a new normal school was erected. In 1879 the District of Columbia leased this property from the trustees of the Fund and maintained the institution as a part of the public school system. About 1900 the trustees purchased another building in which they maintained a day nursery and a kindergarten. This work was later taken over by the public authorities.

In 1915 the city school board purchased a site and erected a magnificent new building to house the normal school. This building was named "The Myrtilla Miner Normal School." After the removal of the public school from the building owned by the Miner Fund, it was necessary to sell the building and invest the money in other forms of real estate at a reduced income.

CUSHING FUND.¹

The total amount of the Cushing Fund is \$33,500 and the income varies from \$1,200 to \$1,500 annually. This income is distributed by the executive officer among 28 schools for colored people.

The fund was bequeathed for the education of colored people in accordance with the will of Miss Emeline Cushing, of Boston, who died in 1895. The will designated Archibald Grimke as executor and trustee. Originally there were two other trustees. All power is now vested in Mr. Grimke, the sole surviving officer.

RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS.

The work of the church boards of education has been described at length in the preceding chapter. The activities in this section are those of the representatives sent out by the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the International Sunday School Association, and the American Sunday School Union.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

The Colored Men's Department² of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association is under the direction of six colored secretaries. The work is divided into three divisions, "student field" with two secretaries, "city field" with two secretaries, and "boys' work" with one secretary. The secretaries in the "student field" devote all their time to visiting Negro schools. The last report shows that associations have been organized in 110 of the larger boarding schools for colored pupils. The influence of the secretaries is notably effective in character development. Conferences of students from many schools are held each year. The purposes of these meetings are:

1. To deepen and strengthen the spiritual life of the leaders of the colored student associations and to instruct and train them in the best methods of Christian work.

¹ Executive officer, Archibald Grimke, 1415 Corcoran Street, Washington, D. C.

² Colored international secretaries: General administration, Jesse E. Moorland, 1816 Twelfth Street, Washington, D. C.; student field, Channing H. Tobias and M. W. Johnson; city field, John B. Watson and Robert P. Hamlin; boys' work, G. W. Moore.



A. AN OUTDOOR CANNING LESSON.

Illustrating the work of the rural school supervisors maintained by the Jeanes Fund and the State departments of education.



B. A PRIZE GARDEN.

The rural school supervisors give effective aid in garden work.

2. To promote an inspiring racial, national, and world-wide brotherhood consciousness and to work unitedly for the common good.

3. To help each student to choose a life calling that will enable him to render the largest possible service to his fellow men.

The work of the city associations includes a number of educational activities. In 1916, there were 50 of these associations for Negro men and boys of cities located in 23 States. The erection of Y. M. C. A. buildings received great impetus in 1911 by the offer of Julius Rosenwald to give \$25,000 to every city that would raise \$75,000 by subscription for the purpose of erecting an association building for colored men and boys. Since that date six cities have raised the full funds and have erected buildings. These cities are Washington, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Kansas City, Cincinnati, and Chicago. The colored people have raised \$555,000 toward these buildings and Mr. Rosenwald has given \$150,000. Nine other cities—New York, Brooklyn, Atlanta, St. Louis, Baltimore, Nashville, Los Angeles, Pittsburgh, and Columbus, Ohio—have also met Mr. Rosenwald's offer, but the buildings have not yet been erected.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

The National Board¹ of the Young Women's Christian Association maintains two secretaries who devote all their time to work among colored girls. One secretary travels among the schools organizing associations and encouraging every movement that makes for high ideals of womanhood and the home. It is reported that organizations have been formed in about 100 schools. Fifty-three of these are affiliated with the National Board and all receive some direction from the Board. City associations have been organized in 17 cities.

SUNDAY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION.

The International Sunday School Association² is maintaining a Department of Work among Negroes. This department employs one field worker who travels among colored schools organizing "Sunday school teacher training classes" and arousing interest in improved methods of teaching the Bible. Through his efforts such classes have been organized in 100 schools located in 19 States. The movement is disseminating knowledge of effective organization in church work, arousing a desire for more system in religious effort, and preparing teachers for Sunday schools.

The department for Negro Sunday schools was the result of a conference held in 1908 at the home of W. N. Hartshorn, of Boston. Representative persons of the South and the North met at this conference to discuss means and methods of increasing the efficiency of the Negro Sunday schools as agencies for the development of character. Through the generosity of Mr. Hartshorn a field secretary has been employed to give his whole time to the work.

¹ National Board of Young Women's Christian Association, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y.; Secretary, Eva D. Bowles.

² Address, 1416 Mallery Building, Chicago, Ill.; field superintendent of work among Negroes, Homer C. Lyman, 78 East Mitchell Street, Atlanta, Ga.

AMERICAN SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.

The American Sunday School Union¹ has recently adopted the policy of maintaining a "missionary teacher" in selected schools for colored people. The plan provides that the teacher shall spend two days each week, teaching Bible and Sunday school methods in the school with which he is connected. The remainder of the time is devoted to visitation of people and churches in the county for the purpose of organizing Sunday schools. The report for 1915 showed that this arrangement has been made with five of the smaller industrial schools.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.²

Several important organizations of the officers and teachers of Negro schools have been formed within the past few years. Some of these associations are contributing much to the development of better standards of educational effort, the elimination of sham and the encouragement of correlation of institutional activities.

CONFERENCE OF EDUCATIONAL BOARDS REPRESENTATIVES.³

In 1913 Dr. James H. Dillard of the Slater and Jeanes Funds called a meeting of the representatives of church boards of education for the purpose of discussing ways and means of avoiding duplication of effort among the schools owned by those Boards. At this conference it was agreed that meetings would be held semiannually. The presiding officer and place of meeting are decided at each conference. The important topics that have been discussed are the adaptation of school curriculum to the needs of the pupils and the community, the selection of institutional names that are descriptive of the grade and character of work done, the elimination of schools that are duplicating the work of other public or private institutions, and the development of cooperation in all educational efforts.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR NEGRO YOUTH.

The Association of Colleges for Negro Youth⁴ was organized at Knoxville, Tenn., in 1913. The plan has been to admit only institutions maintaining work of college grade. So far 10 institutions have been admitted to membership. The following quotation indicates the embarrassment of the association in its effort to be just to the colleges within and without the organization:

One of the most important topics of the several sessions was that of admission of additional colleges into the association. The consensus of opinion prevailed that the association needed more careful detailed information about the colleges, both within and without the organization, and the executive committee was authorized to make a careful study of all colleges both within and without the association that some standards for grading of membership might be established.

¹ Executive office, George P. Williams, 1816 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

² Organizations having educational interests, though not primarily educational associations in the narrower sense, are: The National League on Urban Conditions among Negroes and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Headquarters and officers are as follows: National League on Urban Conditions among Negroes, 2305 Seventh Avenue, New York City; southern headquarters, Nashville, Tenn.; executive secretaries, George Edmund Haynes, Eugene Kinckle Jones. National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.; Moorfield Storey, president; Oswald Garrison Villard, treasurer; Roy Nash, secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, director of research and publicity.

³ The present Secretary is Thomas Jesse Jones, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

⁴ Officers: President, E. C. Sibley, Talladega College, Talladega, Ala.; secretary, George E. Haynes, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

The general purpose of the association is indicated by the following list of topics discussed at the four annual meetings, 1913 to 1916:

1. College entrance requirements.
2. The requirements for a college degree.
3. The reception of students dismissed from other colleges.
4. How far should we allow students to specialize in professional work during their college course?
5. Foreign languages as requirements for college entrance.
6. Uniformity in the exchange of records.
7. What should be done with deficiencies of college students in English, spelling, composition, and penmanship?
8. The control of athletics and place of physical education in the curriculum.
9. What should be done on the matter of our students who go North to work during the summers and who thereby do not return to their home communities for several years, thus getting out of touch with the life of their home communities, in which places many of them are needed after they finish school?
10. How far are we preparing teachers for the public schools and the high schools? What is our part in the forward rural-school movement?
11. How far are our efforts for religious education giving our students training for religious leadership?

It is evident that the association is rapidly broadening the scope of its interest from the formal topics of the earlier meetings to the vital problems outlined in the questions discussed at the last meeting.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLORED SCHOOLS.

The National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools was organized in 1904. Annual meetings have been held each year. State associations have been formed in almost all the Southern States. Teachers representing 21 States were present at the last annual meeting of the national association. These meetings are having a wholesome effect in the development of higher ideals, better methods, and cooperation among teachers in all efforts to adapt education to community needs.

The twelfth annual session of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools was held in Cincinnati July 29 to August 1, 1915. Among the subjects discussed were "The need of a graduate school for Negroes," "College athletics," "Standardizing of Negro schools," "Harmonizing conflicting views of Negro education," and "National education." The 1916 meeting of the association was held in Nashville. In connection with the meeting of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, the annual conference of the Presidents of Land-Grant Colleges considered such topics as the mission, responsibility, and opportunity of the land-grant college, and its relation to the public-school system; the problem of dormitory life; and preparation of teachers of agriculture. Another organization which met with the national association was the Council of College Presidents.

SOUTHERN ORGANIZATIONS.¹

One of the most hopeful movements in the education of the Negroes is the increasing cooperation of southern organizations. These organizations are composed of some of the leading white citizens of the Southern States.

¹ There should also be mentioned in this connection the Southern Sociological Congress, McLaughlin Building, Washington, D. C. The officers are: President, Samuel P. Brooks, Waco, Tex.; secretary, J. E. McCulloch, Washington, D. C.; treasurer, J. H. Dillard, Nashville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Russell Cole, founder. While the Congress devotes only one session to the welfare of the Negro, its work has formed an important contribution to the improvement of race relations.

SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY RACE COMMISSION.¹

The Southern University Race Commission was organized in 1912 for the purpose of studying questions relating to the relation of the races. The commission is composed of professors representing 11 of the southern State universities. Their position as professors in these important institutions makes it possible for them to speak with authority concerning the condition and needs of the Negroes in the Southern States.

The last meeting of the commission was held at Asheville, N. C. Dr. R. F. Campbell, one of the leading ministers of the city, made the following significant comments on the discussion to which he listened:

It was a very notable conference, for several reasons. First, it was composed of southern men organized to study the race question for the practical purpose of bringing about permanent adjustment of the two races in the South. Secondly, it was a conference of southern college and university professors who propose to make this question one of the subjects of instruction in practical sociology in the southern educational institutions they represent. Eleven such colleges and universities were represented in the conference.

In visiting various cities in the South, the commission calls in representative citizens, white and colored, and questions them frankly about the relations of the two races. No set speeches are made. These citizens are called upon to state freely their views on various phases of the race question. After all, this is the best way to get at what a man thinks—to take him when he is not on parade.

SOUTHERN WHITE STUDENTS AND RACE COOPERATION.

Through the efforts of W. D. Weatherford and A. M. Trawick, International Y. M. C. A. Secretaries for white southern colleges, many white students have been aroused to a strong interest in the welfare of the Negroes. The 1916 report of the Social Service Secretary, Student Department,² contains the following interesting statements:

In the majority of white colleges visited it has been possible to present the subject of interracial cooperation and to call upon students to render an unselfish service to Negroes. In an equal number of colored schools addresses have been given on racial peace and good will, and Negro students have been called into various forms of service to the neglected of their own race.

White students have taught in Negro Sunday schools; have organized Bible classes for Negro janitors on the campus; have conducted Bible and mission study classes in Negro colleges; have investigated conditions affecting Negro life; and have presented the fundamentals of Christian living in Negro churches.

The time seems to have come for the successful presentation to southern white students of the needs of Negroes as a definite life challenge. If strong men can be led to present themselves to the mission boards of their churches for support in this form of home-mission service, there is every evidence to believe that the boards will give a favorable response.

At the Southern Student Conference, held each summer at Blue Ridge, N. C., students are encouraged to give serious consideration to the condition of the Negroes in the Southern States. Classes are formed for the systematic study of the problem, and speakers of ability are invited to address the conference on the subject. There is probably no more effective effort for interracial cooperation than the work of Dr. Weatherford and Dr. Trawick among the students of the southern white colleges.

¹ Secretary, W. M. Hunley, Virginia Military Institute, Lexington, Va.

² Y. M. C. A. Student Department of the International Committee Headquarters, 2342 Twenty-ninth Street, New York City and Nashville, Tenn.

LIBRARIES.

Library facilities for Negroes in the Southern States are very inadequate. The investigation of these facilities has been incidental to the study of Negro education. So far as the facts could be obtained, it is probable that there are not more than 35 library buildings open for the Negroes of the South. Of these about 20 are owned and maintained by private schools and only 15 are public libraries in cities.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Of the 653 private and higher schools described in this report, only 27 are known to have a collection of books that on the most liberal interpretation could be called a library. Of these, two are reported to have between 25,000 and 30,000 books, five between 15,000 and 25,000 books, 18 between 5,000 and 15,000 books. Only 11 of these are known to have a fair collection of books, arranged and managed so as to contribute to the education of the pupils. The libraries in practically all the other schools have been properly described as "so unsuitable as to be almost worthless, the discarded refuse of garrets and overcrowded storerooms, which should have gone to the paper mill, but was sent to these poor children through mistaken kindness." It is the frequent observation of the visitors to a number of colored schools that the library rooms are cold and uninviting, the books covered with dust, and the doors unlocked only to impress the occasional visitor.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York reports that the following institutions for Negro pupils have received the sums mentioned for Library Buildings either from Mr. Carnegie or the corporation:

Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	Normal, Ala.....	\$16,540
Atlanta University.....	Atlanta, Ga.....	25,000
Benedict College.....	Columbia, S. C.....	6,000
Biddle University.....	Charlotte, N. C.....	12,500
Cheyney Institute for Colored Youth.....	Cheyney, Pa.....	10,000
Fessenden Academy.....	Martin, Fla.....	6,500
Fisk University.....	Nashville, Tenn.....	20,000
Florida State Normal and Industrial College.....	Tallahassee, Fla.....	10,000
Howard University.....	Washington, D. C.....	50,000
Knoxville College.....	Knoxville, Tenn.....	10,000
Livingstone College.....	Salisbury, N. C.....	12,500
Manassas Industrial Institute.....	Manassas, Va.....	15,000
Talladega College.....	Talladega, Ala.....	15,000
Tuskegee Institute.....	Tuskegee, Ala.....	20,000
Wilberforce University.....	Wilberforce, Ohio.....	17,950
Wiley University.....	Marshall, Tex.....	15,000

In most cases the basis on which the libraries are maintained is under an agreement that the college shall raise for endowment a sum equal to the Carnegie donation. A number of the buildings erected through these gifts provide room not only for the library but also for offices and class rooms.

A few other institutions have received appropriations from other sources. The most notable of these is the very beautiful library at Hampton Institute. This building is the gift of Mrs. Collis P. Huntington, who gave \$100,000 for the purpose.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

CITY LIBRARIES.

As the majority of the public libraries for Negroes in the South have been erected through the aid of Mr. Carnegie or the Carnegie Corporation, the following report of gifts made by this corporation is interesting:

	Amount of Car- negie donation.	Total cost.	Pledge.
Atlanta, Ga.	\$25,000	\$2,500
Evansville, Ind., 1914.	10,000	\$10,000	1,000
Greensboro, N. C.	10,000	1,000
Houston, Tex., 1913.	15,000	17,000	1,500
Knoxville, Tenn.	10,000	1,000
Louisville, Ky.	1908.. 30,935 1914.. 19,895	32,682 20,524	(¹)
Meridian, Miss., 1913.	8,000	8,000	800
Mound Bayou, Miss., 1909.	4,000	7,000	400
Nashville, Tenn., 1915.	25,000	25,000	2,500
New Orleans, La., 1915.	25,000	27,631	(¹)
Savannah, Ga., 1914.	12,000	12,000	1,200

Buildings at Atlanta, Ga., promised November, 1916; Greensboro, N. C., promised September, 1915; and Knoxville, Tenn., promised May, 1916.

All the buildings listed are branch buildings except that at Mound Bayou, Miss.

In a paper entitled "What of the Black and Yellow Races?"² William F. Yust, librarian of the Rochester Public Library, points out that "libraries for Negroes, especially in the South, constitute a real problem." Mr. Yust describes the work done by cities having colored libraries, calling attention to the fact that Charlotte, N. C., was the first city to build a library for Negroes with its own funds; that Savannah, Ga., has had a small library for Negroes since 1907; that Jacksonville, Fla., has in its Carnegie building a separate room and books in charge of a colored attendant, but that the Negro registration is only 5 per cent and the circulation 6 per cent of the total; that Galveston, Tex., has had a branch of the Rosenberg Library in its colored high school since 1904; and that in Memphis, Tenn., the Kossitt Library in 1903 entered into an agreement with the Le Moyne Institute whereby library facilities are furnished to colored persons not only of the school, but of the community.

Louisville, Ky., was, however, as Mr. Yust shows, the first city to establish a full-fledged library branch on a broad basis and to erect a separate library building for Negroes. The original plan for 10 Carnegie branch libraries included two for Negroes. The following description of the work done in Louisville is furnished by Mr. Yust:

In its administration the colored branch is a part of the general library system and is under the supervision of the main library. The branch librarian, who is a graduate of Hampton Institute, and the two assistants are colored.

The branch serves as the reference library for the colored high schools and other educational institutions. It is in close cooperation with the grade schools through the collections of books which it sends to the classrooms to be drawn by the pupils for home use.

It has an assembly room which is used for lectures, entertainments, and numerous other public meetings, and two classrooms for smaller gatherings. There is a story hour for children and several reading and debating clubs for boys and girls and adults. Through its various activities the library

¹ Ten per cent of Carnegie donation.

² Proceedings, American Library Association.

not only circulates books and furnishes facts, but it is an educational and social center from which radiate many influences for general betterment.

Fine work is being done with children, who draw 68 per cent of the books circulated. An interesting account of it is given in the *Library Journal* for April, 1910, 25:160-61, by Mrs. Rachel D. Harris, a former teacher in the colored schools, who is in charge of this department.

When the branch was started eight years ago, it was somewhat of an experiment, and there was doubt and apprehensiveness all around with regard to the outcome of the undertaking. But it has been a pronounced success from the beginning. It has grown steadily until last year 73,462 volumes were drawn from it for home use. It has become so popular that the second branch is now under construction in the eastern colored section of the city.

The colored people are proud of this library and its achievements. Its opening marked an epoch in the development of the race which is second in importance only to the opening of the first colored free schools there in 1870.

The work of this colored branch proved so successful that a second Carnegie building was erected in the eastern part of the city. This branch was opened in 1914. The total cost for building and equipment was \$31,000. Houston, Tex., also has a separate branch building.

With regard to traveling libraries for Negroes, Mr. Yust points out that—

Delaware and Kentucky are the only State library commissions reporting special traveling libraries for Negroes. Last year "seven traveling libraries of 30 to 50 volumes each were arranged for the use of the colored schools in Delaware, and the entire charge and care of these libraries was given over to the State College for Colored Students near Dover." The Kentucky commission has two libraries of 50 volumes each in circulation and is planning to send more. Hampton Institute also sends out traveling collections of books.

Another system of traveling libraries is that established in 1910 by James H. Gregory, of Marblehead, Mass., for distribution through Atlanta University among the Negroes of the South. There are about 60 libraries of 48 volumes each. They are sent to any community, school, church, or other organization for one year and then exchanged for a different set.¹

The following conclusions are drawn by Mr. Yust:

- (1) That books and reading are of the utmost value in the education, development, and progress of the race.
- (2) That in northern public libraries Negroes are admitted to all privileges without distinction.
- (3) That in southern libraries the segregation of the races prevails, as it does, in all educational, religious, and other social institutions.
- (4) That in many places institutional libraries are supplying the book wants of the few Negroes who really have need of libraries.
- (5) That among the masses of the colored race there is as yet very little demand for libraries.
- (6) That where a genuine demand has manifested itself and up-to-date facilities have been provided Negroes have been quick to use them and have made commendable progress.
- (7) That in some of the large cities containing a great many Negroes who are intelligent and who pay taxes the provision made for them is sadly inadequate or is entirely lacking.
- (8) That southern librarians generally are kindly and helpfully disposed toward them and that the majority of the white people favor a fair deal for them, including the best training and the fullest enlightenment.
- (9) That in the South any arrangement which aims to serve the two races in the same room or in the same building is detrimental to the greatest good of both.
- (10) That many libraries are not financially able to conduct separate departments, and so the Negro loses out.

¹ Two interesting articles on these libraries and their founder were published by G. S. Dickerman in the *Southern Workman*, August and September, 1910.

(11) That a few cities have splendid facilities for Negroes, a few others are now establishing branches, a considerable number are discussing the question seriously, and another considerable number which should be at work are doing nothing.

(12) That the best solution of the problem is the separate branch in charge of colored assistants under the supervision and control of the white authorities.

(13) That even in modern cities which have large segregated colored districts such separate branches would result in reaching a larger number of Negroes and doing better work for both races.

(14) That the South is entitled to the sympathy and help of the North on this question, which is only a part of the larger question of Negro education. That sympathy will come with fuller information and will increase as the size and seriousness of the problem is more fully understood.

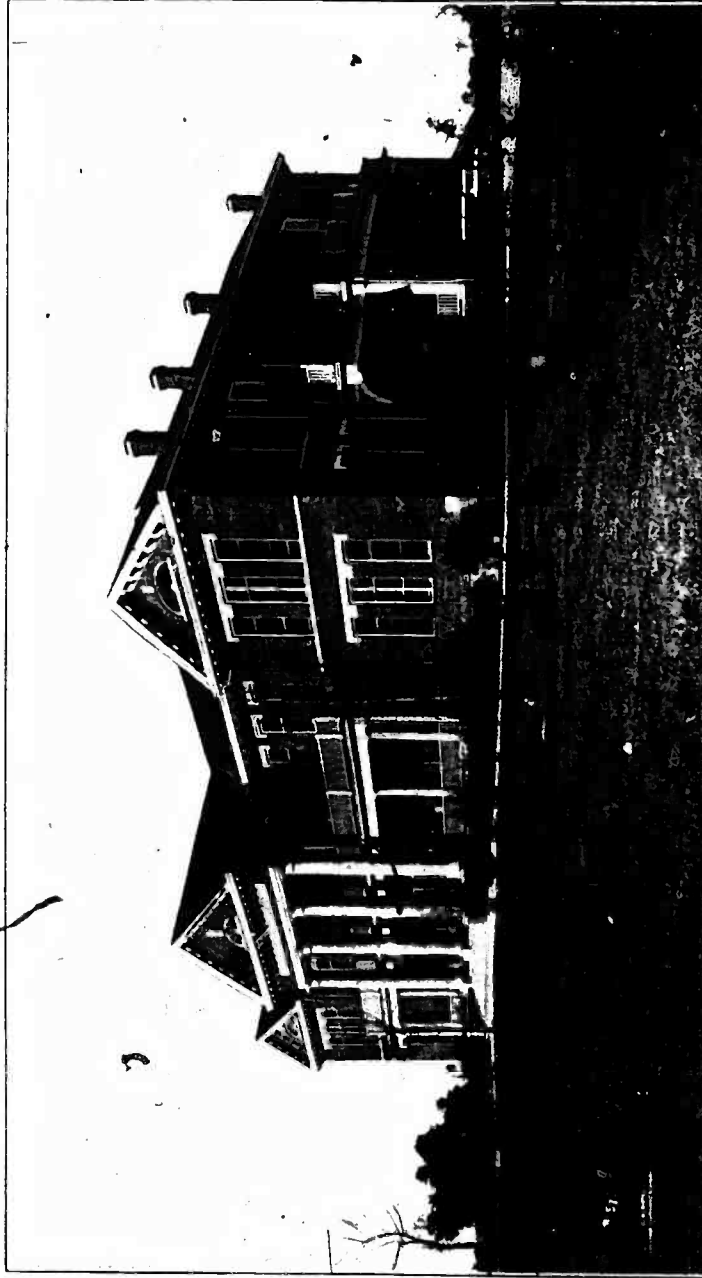
HOSPITALS AND NURSE TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The changed conditions of modern life have occasioned a wholly new order of things for the care of the sick and disabled; and well-equipped hospitals with training schools for nurses are now numerous, where they were almost unknown 50 years ago. This has led to the institution of hospitals for the colored people. These have been very necessary for the colored people and also for the colored physicians and surgeons. There are now several thousand colored physicians and surgeons who have received diplomas in the regular medical schools and are practicing their profession among their own people. They are not usually admitted to practice in the general hospitals of the Southern States, however, which is a serious hindrance to their progress in knowledge and skill, as well as a great embarrassment in the care of their patients. There has been a growing demand also for colored nurses with the training that can be acquired only in hospitals. Thus, for more reasons than one, hospitals designed particularly for the colored people have become necessary.

The first of these was founded at Hampton, Va., in 1891, by Miss Alice M. Bacon, who was at that time connected with Hampton Institute, though her hospital was independent and bore the name of "Dixie." In the same year the "MacVicar Hospital" was established as a feature of Spelman Seminary in Atlanta, and the "Provident Hospital" was instituted in Chicago. Three years later, in 1894, the "Freedmen's Hospital" was started in Washington and the "Lamar Hospital" in Augusta, Ga. Then, in 1895, came the "Frederick Douglass" in Philadelphia; in 1896, the "Sarah Goodrich" in New Orleans; and in 1897, the "Hospital and Training School for Nurses" in Charleston. Others have followed, one by one, in other important centers: Charlotte, Richmond, Columbia, Savannah, Jacksonville, Nashville, Knoxville, Louisville, Raleigh, Tuskegee, Durham, Atlanta, and elsewhere. In all of these hospitals the training school for nurses is a conspicuous feature, and the nurses who receive this training show very great efficiency, finding employment largely among the white people, who frequently prefer them to white nurses with similar training. Some of these institutions have been built up through the enterprise of individual colored physicians. A notable example is the "St. Luke's Hospital" at Columbia, founded and maintained in the face of many discouragements, by Dr. Matilda A. Evans, who received her education at Schofield Institute, Oberlin College, and the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. Hospitals of this type are held in high esteem by the communities in which they are located and are centers of beneficence for the country around.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BULLETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 27



JOHN A. ANDREW HOSPITAL, TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE.



THE DISTRICT NURSE.
Talladega College, Alabama.

X. FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS AND STUDENT RECORDS.

INTRODUCTION.

Financial accounts and student records are essential to the sound management of every school. Careful study of the institutions described in this report indicates that the large majority of them are defective in both types of record-keeping. While dishonesty could be proved in but very few instances, the accounts and records of many schools were found to be so inadequate as to make them liable to the charge of gross inefficiency in the administration of financial resources and student activities.

The study revealed that there are 653 private and higher schools, exclusive of the city high schools. They have property valued at \$34,224,555 and an annual income of \$3,990,071. Of the income, \$1,156,221 is from church boards and religious organizations, \$868,430 from State and Federal appropriations and land-grant funds, \$767,744 from general donations, \$490,639 from tuition and students' fees, and \$707,037 from endowment and other sources.

Of the 653 schools, 294 have been considered large or important in this report. On the basis of property, 25 of these schools have valuations exceeding \$250,000, 30 have valuations from \$150,000 to \$250,000, 15 from \$100,000 to \$150,000, 47 from \$50,000 to \$100,000, 59 from \$25,000 to \$50,000, 59 from \$10,000 to \$25,000, and 49 have valuations under \$10,000. On the basis of annual income, 25 of these larger schools receive more than \$30,000, 42 from \$15,000 to \$30,000, 89 from \$5,000 to \$15,000, 65 from \$2,500 to \$5,000, and 73 less than \$2,500.

The proper management of these property holdings and successful handling of the annual revenue render it imperative that the schools keep their financial records as carefully as possible. While it is not thought that every school should attempt an elaborate system of account keeping, the following are regarded as fundamental to most schools:

1. A system of accounts suited to the needs of the school should be installed and the books audited annually by an accredited accountant.
2. A bank account should be kept and all cash received deposited in the bank daily.
3. Payments should be made only on the authority of two qualified officers of the school and, so far as possible, should be made by check.
4. All financial records, such as cash received and payments made, should be kept under the direction of one person residing on the school campus.
5. All purchases should first be approved by a person with authority or by a purchasing committee.
6. All departments, including the boarding department and farm, should be conducted by the school.
7. Soliciting agents should be required to forward all cash received direct to the treasurer's office, and should be paid their salaries and expenses through the regular channels of the school. In no case should they be allowed to solicit on a commission basis.

Of equal importance with the financial accounting is the careful recording of students and their activities. The final test of any school is the condition and progress of the students. The minimum requirements of a system of student records for any school, however small, may be summed up as follows:

1. *The institution should, so far as possible, adopt the student records recommended by the State department of public instruction.*
2. *Records should show the number of pupils in the school for every month of the school year.*
3. *Pupils should be classified by age, sex, and grade.*
4. *Records should be kept in such a manner as to show the scholarship, work, and character of every pupil.*

SCHOOL ACCOUNTS.¹

Complete financial records are as important for an educational institution as they are for a business enterprise. Too frequently school officials have considered the keeping of such records an unimportant part of the work of the school. Present-day standards of economy, efficiency, and honesty, however, require that the school be able at any time to present an accurate statement of its financial affairs. No school can furnish such a statement without proper accounts. Such accounts are of special importance to the schools considered in this report, which depend so largely for their support upon private benefactions.

In the effort to combine instruction in academic subjects with training in agriculture and in the various trades, many of these schools have developed so complex an organization that the proper keeping of their accounts requires experienced bookkeepers. Such bookkeepers can not always be obtained, and in many instances funds are not available to offer them adequate compensation.

Most of the schools realize the importance of good accounting methods and have attacked the problem with resolution and determination. Some institutions, however, including a few of the larger and many of the smaller schools, make no effort to keep proper books. Frequently the only financial records of the school are to be found in the personal memoranda of the principal. Occasionally the financial responsibility is divided among several persons, with the result that complete accounts are not forthcoming for the whole school. This lack of centralization is most pronounced in the State and land-grant schools and in the schools under colored religious denominations. In these schools the treasurer usually lives away from the school campus and handles only part of the funds. It has also been found that the principal of the school conducts the boarding department as a private venture, although the products of the farm and the school equipment are used with perhaps only a nominal charge.

The more important church boards provide certain forms and require periodical reports. They have not, however, provided adequate methods of controlling the students' accounts, or of recording the operating results of the boarding, agricultural, and industrial departments. Property records are equally deficient. The investigation revealed schools which own large amounts of land, the dimensions and extent of which are known only to

¹ The section on school accounts was prepared by Ocea Taylor, of the Bureau of Education, in cooperation with the firm of Judson, Wilson & Co., chartered accountants, New York City. Valuable suggestions were given by E. D. Proudman, of Hampton Institute, and others.

the president of the school. Usually the president would state offhand the amount and value of the land, or would refer to the copies of deeds which were kept among his private papers. Frequently in the case of independent schools it was found that title to the school property was not properly vested, in some instances being in the name of the principal himself. Inventories of buildings and movable equipment were nearly always lacking and several schools came under observation which had lost large sums of money in insurance indemnity because they could not produce inventories to prove their losses.

While some of the institutions are successfully administered from a financial point of view many of them present serious weaknesses. The defects in the administration of the schools of the different boards are discussed in the chapter on ownership and control, while those of each institution are pointed out in the statement of the individual schools in Volume II of this report. The more apparent needs of the schools of the four general ownership groups are as follows:

1. *Land-grant and State schools.*—Greater centralization of financial responsibility and control. In practically all of the schools a treasurer, residing away from the school, controls appropriations, while the president receives donations and collects funds at the school. In most instances neither of these officers can account for all funds of the school.

2. *Independent schools.*—Closer supervision. The president frequently has full financial authority, while the trustees act only in a nominal capacity.

3. *Schools under white denominational boards.*—A more adequate method of reporting to the central office, and better control of students accounts.

4. *Schools under colored denominational boards.*—Greater centralization of financial responsibility and control. Many of these schools have three, and some as many as four officers who receive and pay out funds of the schools without making full reports to a competent board of trustees.

ADVANTAGES OF PROPER ACCOUNTS.

The advantages of a well-kept system of accounts properly arranged and based on a suitable classification may be summarized as follows:

1. It makes possible the preparation of proper financial and statistical reports, which, when audited by a qualified accountant, inspire confidence in donors and subscribers to the institution.

2. It makes possible an accurate presentation of the financial needs of the school.

3. It shows the true cost of equipping and operating the school as a whole and the expenditure for each activity.

4. It provides for an accurate record of money given to the school, and shows whether the wishes of the donors have been observed in the expenditure of gifts.

5. It prevents losses, establishes satisfactory relations with the business firms and with the school community, and develops sound financial habits in the students by holding them to a strict accounting for money they owe the school.

Thoughtful people everywhere who are interested in the work of the schools are becoming more and more desirous of a uniform system of accounts and annual reports. By a uniform system is meant such a classification of accounts as will serve for all educational institutions of the kind considered in this report. An annual report made up from such a system of accounts is not only valuable to the school in comparing its several activities with those of other kindred institutions, but it is also valuable in indi-

cating to donors and other persons interested that the funds contributed have been spent economically and honestly. The following method is suggested.

CLASSIFICATION OF ACCOUNTS.

Expenditure accounts.

1. Academic department.
2. Trades or industrial department.
3. Farm or agricultural department.
4. Boarding department.
5. Operation and maintenance of plant.
6. Administration.
7. Other departments.

Income accounts.

1. Students.
 - a. Board.
 - b. Tuition.
 - c. Fees.
2. Donations.
 - a. For general purposes.
 - b. For special purposes.
3. Endowment and investments.
4. Grants from public funds.
5. Other sources.

Assets.

1. Current assets.
 - a. Cash.
 - b. Accounts receivable.
 - c. Supplies, as per inventories.
2. School plant.
 - a. Land.
 - b. Buildings.
 - c. Equipment.
3. Investments.
4. Other assets.

Liabilities.

1. Current liabilities.
 - a. Accounts payable.
 - b. Notes payable.
 - c. Loans.
 - d. Mortgages.
2. Plant capital.
3. Endowment funds.
 - a. General endowment.
 - b. Scholarship endowment.
4. Special funds.

While this classification of accounts might be generally adopted, a set of forms and books that will be suited to every type of institution can not be completely described. In view of the great need for proper financial records in these schools, a simple system which may be used in a large number of the schools is herewith presented. The forms described may be enlarged, modified, or condensed to suit the special needs of any particular institution. While every suggestion may not be practical in every school, the principles should apply in every case. Proper classification, economy of operation, and completeness of detail are just as essential in school accounts as in business. Special forms should, therefore, be provided for the different kind of records, including the inventory, the budget, books of account, and the annual report. The system herewith outlined might be adapted to the needs of most of the schools; it is, in fact, based upon a system which has been installed with success in a large number of educational institutions.

THE INVENTORY.

The inventory is a list or schedule giving the description and value of the school property. It is the first requisite of good financial management. No institution is able to provide against loss and waste without inventories properly prepared and kept up to date. The investigation revealed, however, that most of the schools have neglected this important provision. The inventory should cover fully all the land, buildings, and movable equipment of the school, and should be brought up to date from

time to time by making adjustments for new purchases, sales, and losses. It thus serves as a means of accounting for all property, and is invaluable in settling fire insurance claims and determining the proper amount of insurance to be carried. Where trades and industries are carried on, a yearly inventory of material and supplies is necessary to determine the annual cost of these activities.

Land inventory.—The first part of the inventory should set forth the details of all land owned by the school. The following form is suggested:

Form I.—LAND INVENTORY.

Parcel or tract.	Location.	Number of acres.	Date of purchase.	From whom purchased.	Cost price.	Present value.	Amount of mortgage or lien.

Buildings' inventory.—The second part of the inventory relates to the buildings. Too much emphasis can not be laid upon the proper valuation of buildings at the time of making the inventory. Old buildings should be carefully appraised by competent persons. Before new buildings are erected specifications should be prepared and submitted to competent architects for approval. The cost should be carefully figured according to the specifications, and each section of the buildings should be given to the shops as a contract. If the work does not come up to specification, the shop should be called upon to make the necessary improvement, or to make equitable allowance from the contract price. In this way the shops will be placed on a commercial basis, and the buildings will be carried on the books at a proper cost value. In many schools, at present, the custom is to charge to construction all material and labor used, regardless of the fact that a considerable quantity is spent in training students employed on the work.

Another important item to be considered in preparing the buildings inventory is that of *depreciation*. This item is just as much a part of the cost of running the school as salaries and other expenses. Depreciation is constant, and unless some fund is set aside from year to year to provide for the renewal of buildings the school will ultimately be confronted with very serious problems.

The following form is suggested:

Form II.—BUILDING INVENTORY.

Name of building.	Purposes for which building is used.	Description.					When built.	Cost price.	Present value.
		Length.	Width.	Height.	Material.	Stories.			

Inventory of movable equipment.—The third part of the inventory should cover the movable equipment. The following form is suggested:

Form III.—INVENTORY OF MOVABLE EQUIPMENT.

Building.....

Date..... 191

Number of articles.	Description of articles.	Year purchased.	Total cost price.	Present value.

THE SCHOOL BUDGET.

The school budget is a statement of the known and anticipated income and expenditure. It is essential to show the funds available for the various needs of the school and provide for systematic expenditure. Salaries must be paid, equipment secured, buildings and grounds kept in condition, and the various departments as liberally supported as the available and prospective funds will permit. The funds can not be properly applied unless a budget is carefully prepared beforehand and lived up to. The budget should be made at the beginning of each school year, since by this means the figures will be made to correspond with registration statistics. The budget should be made up in a form to correspond with the classification of the accounts outlined below. It should be referred to frequently, in order to detect any expenditure in excess of the budget estimate. For convenience the budget might be in two sections, one for income and the other for expenditure. For convenience in preparing the budget it is desirable to show, for purposes of comparison, the figures of income and expenditure for the preceding year.

Summary of income.—The greatest problem of budget making is to estimate the money which will be available for operating the school, for upon this depends the amount to be spent on each department or activity. This part of the budget should show the income of the previous year from each of the sources to which the school looks for its support, together with the known and estimated receipts from each of these sources for the coming year. This is useful both for purposes of comparison and as a guide in planning the financial campaign. The following form is suggested for this part of the budget.

Form IV.—BUDGET SUMMARY OF INCOME.

School year 19...

	Income last year.	This year.		
		Total.	Known income.	Estimated income.
Cash balance from previous year.....	\$	\$	\$	\$
Appropriations.....				
Church boards.....				
State or other public funds.....				
Endowment and investments.....				
Donations.....				
Tuition and fees.....				
Productive departments.....				
Boarding department.....				
Shops.....				
Farm.....				
All other sources.....				
Total.....				

Summary of expenditure.—After the income, both known and estimated, has been determined, the next step is to decide upon the advantageous distribution of the funds among the departments. After providing for the regular needs of each department, it will be possible with a properly prepared budget to determine what department it is possible to enlarge or otherwise increase in its operation. In preparing the estimate of expenditure it is essential that the expenses of each department be shown separately. The person in charge of each department should be required to submit a statement of the anticipated expenses and earnings of his department. Each kind of expense should be indicated. Salaries, supplies and material, equipment, and repairs would appear in nearly every department. From these departmental statements the summary for the entire school should be made. These statements should be revised by the budget committee, having regard for the amount of income available, and the figures as finally settled should be brought into the budget. The following form is suggested for this part of the budget:

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Form V.—BUDGET SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES.

Date.....19...

Items of expenditure.	Last year.	This year.		
		Total expenses.	Known expenses.	Estimated expenses.
Salaries.....				
Administration.....				
Operating expenses.....				
Materials and supplies.....				
Printing and stationery.....				
Postage.....				
Advertising.....				
All other.....				
Maintenance of plant.....				
Repairs and additions to buildings.....				
Repairs and additions to equipment.....				
Books for library.....				
Scientific apparatus.....				
All other.....				
Interest and insurance.....				
Heat, light, and water.....				
All other.....				
Total.....				

BOOKS OF ACCOUNT.

The books and office forms for recording daily transactions must vary as the needs and complexity of the individual school require. No set of forms will apply to every institution. Each institution should employ an expert accountant to study its peculiar problems and install a proper system. The system of bookkeeping should be as simple as the size and organization of the school will admit. The books should be on the loose-leaf columnar principle. The advantage of this is threefold—it facilitates the handling of records, reduces the size of the books, and reduces the number of ledger postings and accounts. This system can be made so simple in operation that students may be employed in the office, with a resulting saving of expense to the school.

The schools presenting the more serious problems of bookkeeping are those of the agricultural and industrial type. The forms outlined, therefore, are designed especially for this group of schools. Most of these institutions have farms, shops, and boarding departments in addition to their academic work. They vary from the small school with two or three teachers to the large institution with a complex organization. The financial records of these schools generally fall into five classes: (1) Cash transactions; (2) transactions with tradesmen and merchants; (3) transactions with students; (4) transactions with teachers, officers, and outside laborers; (5) transactions between departments.

(1) CASH TRANSACTIONS.

The records of the cash transactions are among the most important. Receipts should be given for all cash received, payments should be made by voucher check, and the cash book should be looseleaf, with columns for the different kinds of receipts and expenditures.

Form VI.—DUPLICATE RECEIPT BOOK.

No. _____

EDUCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE

Boston. _____ 191_____

RECEIVED FROM _____

_____ Dollars.

Special a/c \$ _____ For _____

For Donation _____

" Scholarship _____

" Endowment _____

Treasurer

Form VII.—VOUCHER CHECK.

[illegible]

Cash book.—The cash book should be looseleaf and should have columns corresponding to the classifications of income and expenditure. The total amount of cash received each day should be entered in the total column on the debit side of the cash book and the exact amount of this total should be deposited in the bank. The debit page should provide columns for the usual sources from which the school receives money, such as donations, endowments, students' board and tuition, public appropriations, and other sources. The cash-book division of income should correspond with the ledger accounts, so as to enable the cashier to deal with the totals at the end of the month instead of the individual items. The credit page should provide columns for personal accounts, accounts payable, and bank deposits. (Form VIII.)

(2) TRANSACTIONS WITH TRADESMEN AND MERCHANTS.

Voucher record.—The correct recording of transactions with tradesmen and merchants is especially important because of its bearing upon the school in its dealings with the community. The voucher record, or expense analysis book, has been found most convenient for handling such items. This is a loose-leaf columnar book. The bills for purchases and expenses are entered daily. Each voucher is given a number and the bills are filed in serial order. When payment is made the checks are entered in the cash book and the date of payment and check number are entered in the voucher book in the column provided. The voucher record is summarized monthly and posted to the general ledger. (See Form IX.)

(3) TRANSACTIONS WITH STUDENTS.

Student ledger.—Transactions with students are usually on the cash basis and are entered in the cash book, from which they are posted direct to the students' ledger. Some students, however, are always employed in the various departments of the school. At the end of the month the credits of each student should be posted to the students' ledger, while the total charge for student labor is posted to the general ledger. A special form of student ledger is used in some schools, which shows all transactions with a student for the entire year on one line, and provides columns for the usual debit and credit items. The credit columns are cash, labor, and other allowances, while the debit columns show charges for board, tuition and fees, and cash. In this way the accuracy of each student's account is assured as well as the totals for board, tuition, cash, and labor. It is absolutely necessary to prove that all board and other charges have been duly accounted for, also that the total cash credited to students agrees with the amount shown in the cash book, and that labor credited agrees with the amounts charged to departments; otherwise there is no assurance that the students' accounts are correct or that the departmental accounts are correct, since the one is contingent upon the other. The most convenient form of student ledger is a bound book, in which the names are arranged so that one writing of the name will suffice for several months. (See Form XII.)

(4) TRANSACTIONS WITH TEACHERS AND OTHERS.

Personal ledger.—Where a school sells to outsiders the product of its farm or its shops, and where accounts are kept with teachers, a small subsidiary ledger is necessary. The ordinary stock form of ledger will serve. Teachers should be paid by voucher check and their salaries assigned to the respective departments. Accounts with teachers should be kept in the personal ledger. Where outside laborers are employed and paid in small weekly amounts, a simple pay roll should be provided and the signature of each laborer obtained. Money for this purpose should be drawn from the bank with the regular voucher check payable to the officer by whom the payments are to be made.

(5) TRANSACTIONS BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS.

Where there are several departments it is always the case that some of them supply labor and material to other departments. These transactions are of as much importance in determining the cost of each department as transactions with outsiders. Each department should, therefore, keep careful records of its daily transactions with other depart-

DEBIT PAGE

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 14 inches]

CREDIT PAGE

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 14 inches]

Form IX.—VOUCHER RECORD

46027°—Bull. 38—17. (To face page 186.) No. 1

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 21 inches]

Form X.—DEPARTMENTAL JOURNAL

YEAR ENDED

191

DATE	DEPARTMENT NAME	TOTAL	JULY	AUGUST	SEPTEMBER	OCTOBER	NOVEMBER	DECEMBER	JANUARY	FEBRUARY	MARCH	APRIL	MAY	JUNE

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 14 inches]

APPROPRIATION S

Form XI.—GENERAL LEDGER

No.

INCOME ACCOUNTS PAGE

A C

DATE	PARTICULARS	FO.	TOTAL CREDITS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	DATE	PARTICULARS	FO.	DEBITS

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 14 inches]

EXPENDITURES ACCOUNTS PAGE

ACCOUNT

SHEET No.

DATE	REFERENCE	FOL	TOTAL DEBIT	No. 1 SALARIES	No. 2 STUD. LABOR	No. 3 OUT LABOR	No. 4 EQUIPMENT	No. 5 SUNDRY EXP.	No. 6	No. 7	No. 8	No. 9	No. 10	No. 11	No. 12	DATE	REFERENCE	FOL	TOTAL CREDIT

[Actual size of form, 12 inches by 14 inches]

'STUDENTS' LEDGER

Form XII.—STUDENTS' LEDGER

Month of

191

NAME	NO.	BALANCES		CHARGES TO STUDENTS								TOTAL DEBITS	CREDITS TO STUDENTS						TOTAL CREDITS	BALANCES		
		DEBIT	CREDIT	CASH	BOARD	FEE	STORE													DEBIT	CREDIT	CUT HERE
				Date	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.		No.	Date	No.	No.	No.	No.				
	1																					
	2																					
	3																					
	4																					
	5																					
	6																					
	7																					
	8																					
	9																					
	10																					
	11																					
	12																					
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	16																					
	17																					
	18																					
	19																					
	20																					

Form XII—STUDENTS' LEDGER

101 STUDENTS' LEDGER

Month of 0000 STUDENTS 191

BALANCES			CHARGES TO STUDENTS										TOTAL DEBITS	CREDITS TO STUDENTS					TOTAL CREDITS	BALANCES		
NO.	DEBIT	CREDIT	CASH	BOARD	FEES	STORE								NO.	CASH	LABOR	AID	REMARKS		DEBIT	CREDIT	CUT HERE
1														1								
2														2								
3														3								
4														4								
5														5								
6														6								
7														7								
8														8								
9														9								
10														10								
11														11								
12														12								
13														13								
14														14								
15														15								
16														16								
17														17								
18														18								
19														19								
20														20								

ENT'S LEDGER

Month of DECEMBER 1911

NO.	CREDITS TO STUDENTS				TOTAL CREDITS	BALANCES		CUT HERE
	CASH	LABOR	AID	REBATES		DEBIT	CREDIT	
	Date	No.	No.	No.				
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
11								
12								
13								
14								
15								
16								
17								
18								
19								
20								

1 inch by 2 1/2 inches]

ments, which are brought together at the end of each month in the general ledger. In this way the detailed facts for each department are shown month by month and any failure to keep within the budget is readily detected. (See Form X.)

In all transactions involving commodities, farm produce, and labor between the departments, market prices should prevail. The farming operations usually entail considerable expenditure and very seldom return a net revenue to the school, this being due to the fact that the farm is operated primarily for the purpose of teaching agriculture. In order that the farm may produce what the boarding department requires, it is well to keep a classified schedule of all farm products consumed daily, for a year. In this way a permanent basis is established for cooperative work.

The books suggested to cover departmental transactions are, the daybook, which is kept by the head of the department, and the departmental journal, in which the transactions are summarized at the end of the month and posted to the general ledger to the debit and credit of the respective departments.

Daybook.—The daybook is a simple chronological memorandum of the business transactions of the department. No special form is necessary, since the usual form of bound book is sufficient. Each department should keep such a book, to be sent to the treasurer's office each month, so that charges may be entered. In large institutions it is sometimes found convenient to have two sets of daybooks and alternate each month.

Departmental journal.—Transactions with other departments should be summarized in the departmental journal from the daybook and posted to the proper department in the general ledger. For the departmental journal see Form X.

General ledger.—The trial balance of the general ledger should show, at the end of each month, the exact financial condition of the school, together with details of income and expenditure, departmental transactions, correct investments, property, funds, and all outstanding indebtedness. In this book all the accounts of the school are finally brought together. In it should be found a complete financial history of the school. The general ledger should be looseleaf. The accounts should be divided into groups and tabs used to indicate the kind of account in each group. The first group may be "Income accounts," and under this there would be separate leaves showing the amounts received from each source, such as donations, appropriations, tuition and fees, boarding department, and endowments. The following form is suggested:

The second group of the general ledger may be "Expenditure accounts." Under it would be a leaf for each department, such as Academic, Boarding, Farm, Shops, Maintenance of Plant, and Administration. These pages should have one debit column for total expenditure and one for each of the several expenditures, such as salaries, outside labor, student labor, equipment, supplies, and heat, light, and water. One credit column should also be provided for total income. The expenditures are thus shown in analytical form so that comparison with the budget allowance may be easily made. (See Form XI.)

ANNUAL REPORT.

All schools should prepare a monthly report for guidance in the internal management and an annual report for the information of donors, trustees, and the public. The annual report also shows whether the school has kept within the budget. This report should always be audited by a qualified accountant. The report should be as

simple as possible and in such form that a person unfamiliar with accounting forms and terms may understand it. The essentials of the report are: (1) The balance sheet or statement of assets and liabilities; (2) statement of income and expenditures; (3) departmental accounts; (4) list of donors, with name, address, and amount given. The following form is suggested:

Form XIII.—ANNUAL REPORT.

(a) BALANCE SHEET, JUNE 30, 1913.

	June 30, 1913.	June 30, 1912.		June 30, 1913.	June 30, 1912.
ASSETS.			LIABILITIES.		
Cash in bank.....	\$11. 05	\$1, 677. 33	Accounts payable:		
Notes receivable.....	134. 43	134. 43	To principal		
Students' debit balances..	622. 31	444. 55	and teach-		
Accounts receivable.....	167. 75		ers.....	\$3, 738. 15	
Equipment, livestock, etc.	6, 191. 20	6, 985. 68	To trades-		
Buildings.....	35, 888. 62	36, 519. 00	men.....	1, 704. 74	
Lands.....	3, 800. 00	3, 800. 00			
Insurance paid in			Notes payable.....	\$5, 442. 89	\$4, 803. 42
advance.....	\$447. 30		Mortgage payable.....	1, 337. 04	1, 714. 36
Rents in arrears.....	21. 00		Students' credit balances..	2, 700. 00	2, 700. 00
			Reserve for bad debts....	47. 14	138. 52
Summer school:				300. 00	88. 71
Excess of expenses to			Funds:		
date.....	468. 30		General		
Endowment investment:			fund.....	\$36, 841. 08	
Loan to school corpo-			Endow-		
ration.....	1, 000. 00	1, 000. 00	ment fund	2, 000. 00	
				38, 841. 08	41, 115. 98
	48, 668. 75	50, 560. 99		48, 668. 75	50, 560. 99

(b) INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR THE YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1913.

Expenditures.	1912-13	1911-12	Income.	1912-13	1911-12
Net cost of departments, as per schedule A:			Subscribed income:		
Academic and domestic science.....	\$2, 231. 56	\$2, 209. 31	Houston County ap- propriation.....	\$600. 00	\$500. 00
Boarding and laundry.....	621. 03	170. 84	American Church In- stitute.....	500. 00	500. 00
Agriculture.....	594. 27	961. 95	John F. Slater Fund..	500. 00	500. 00
Brick masonry.....	137. 83		General donations....	9, 757. 37	10, 221. 33
Carpentry.....	603. 78				
Dressmaking.....	442. 02	414. 08	Entrance fees and tuition..	11, 357. 37	11, 721. 33
Maintenance of plant..	3, 851. 13	3, 830. 65	House rents.....	748. 15	557. 33
Publicity, campaign and extension.....	2, 295. 77	1, 399. 12	Entertainments—net pro- ceeds.....	127. 25	115. 70
Administration.....	1, 268. 10	2, 505. 63	Income from endowment..	87. 72	133. 22
Students' balances written off.....	12, 045. 49	11, 339. 90	Adjustment of books:	70. 00	70. 00
New equipment.....	251. 40	88. 71	Dec. 31, 1912. \$52. 93		
	1, 258. 64		June 30, 1913. 5. 06		
				57. 99	
			Deficit of income for year to date.....	12, 448. 48	12, 597. 58
				1, 107. 05	1, 168. 97
	13, 555. 53	11, 428. 61		13, 555. 53	11, 428. 61

Net gain.

(C) DEPARTMENTAL ACCOUNTS.

	Total.	Academ- ic.	Board- ing.	Agricul- ture.	Brick mason- ry.	Carpen- try.	Dress- making.	Mainte- nance.	Pub- licity.	Adminis- tration.
EXPENDITURES.										
Salaries and teachers' board.....	\$5,836.55	\$2,171.05	\$611.04	\$585.00	\$225.50	\$353.67	\$269.85		\$602.94	\$1,027.50
Students' labor.....	1,987.18		855.12	416.00	27.31	138.46	278.39	\$269.30		6.00
Outside labor.....	1,587.33			516.88	7.50	1,011.43	10.00	41.52		
Supplies.....	2,193.06	40.12	264.73	38.02	235.21	1,070.23	43.78	190.23	158.07	152.17
Renewals of equipment.....	580.78	19.74	137.01	50.50	.85	24.20		223.29	122.08	5.21
Sundry expenses.....	2,085.09	4.95	90.28	128.05	62.00	.16		303.60	1,414.48	81.27
Food (feed—farm).....	4,895.03		4,496.03	399.00						
Fertilizer and seed.....	421.63			421.63						
Fuel, water, and light.....	647.18							647.18		
Repairs to buildings.....	2,181.51							2,181.51		
Total expenditures.....	22,474.34	2,235.86	6,454.21	2,561.68	544.87	2,598.15	602.02	3,856.63	2,298.77	1,272.15
INCOME.										
Departmental receipts.....	5,332.59		1,338.49	1,597.45	404.11	1,092.54				
Students' receipts.....	3,899.72		3,899.72							
Cash receipts.....	558.54	4.30	6.97	369.96	2.93	1.83	160.00	5.50	3.00	4.05
Summer school receipts.....	588.00		588.00							
Total income.....	10,378.85	4.30	5,833.18	1,967.41	407.04	1,994.37	160.00	5.50	3.00	4.05
Net cost.....	12,045.49	2,231.56	6,211.03	594.27	137.83	603.78	442.02	3,851.13	2,295.77	1,268.10

STUDENT RECORD FORMS.

No set of record forms can be devised to fit all educational institutions. It is possible, however, for one institution to obtain helpful suggestions from the experience of another in this as in other school matters. The cards and schedules reproduced in the following pages will at least indicate how institutions of recognized standing have solved the problem of student records and forms.

APPLICATION BLANKS.

For certain types of institutions, particularly the private and higher schools for Negroes, much depends upon the form of the application blank. This is usually the first point of contact between the student and the institutions. It needs to be simple, yet searching; it should not terrify or confuse the prospective student, if he is worthy, yet it should at the same time reveal to the institution, as far as a written record can, what manner of youth the applicant is. Examination of numerous application blanks shows that the following items are common to practically all collegiate institutions:

APPLICATION BLANK.

Date..... 19...

A. The applicant.

1. Name, home address.
2. Place and date of birth, age.
3. Religious or church preference or connection.

B. Parents or guardians.

1. Name, home address.
2. Occupation.

C. Preparatory training.

1. Schools—name, location, principal of each.
2. Length of time at each. Graduate or not.
3. Other college.
4. Teaching experience (for normal students only).
5. Preparatory studies completed—college units for each. Which may be certified? Which require examination? Conditions in entrance studies.

D. College course.

1. What course do you intend to enter?
2. When or in what class?
3. Scholarship or other aid.

A typical admission blank in use by an institution which has carefully studied the problem of adequate forms is reproduced herewith. Each school will naturally need to adapt certain of the questions to its own division of subjects. Every question in the Hampton blank is worthy of careful study, however.

SUGGESTED ADMISSION BLANK.

(Page 1.)

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE, HAMPTON, VIRGINIA, 1917.

Read the inclosed circular of information carefully before attempting to answer any of the questions. This application can not be considered until all questions are properly answered.

QUESTIONS FOR BOTH BOYS AND GIRLS.

[Applicants must answer the following questions in their own handwriting.]

1. Write your full name here.....
2. Where were you born?..... In what year?.....
3. Write your home address here.....
 Street and number.....
 Post office or city.....
 County..... State.....
4. If not at home, write your present address here.....
 Street and number.....
 Post office or city.....
 County..... State.....
 How long do you expect to remain at the address last given?.....
5. Have you good health?.....
6. Have you any bodily deformity?.....
7. How old were you on your last birthday?.....
8. When was your last birthday?.....
9. What is your height?..... 10. What is your weight?.....
11. When were you vaccinated last?.....
 Note.—Every new student must bring a certificate signed by a physician showing that he or she has been properly vaccinated within one year.
12. Give name and address of reliable persons who know you well.
 a. A Hampton graduate. Name..... Address.....
 b. A Hampton student. Name..... Address.....
 c. Some well-known citizen near your home. Name..... Address.....
 d. Your last teacher. Name..... Address.....

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[Page 2.]

13. Are you in school now? 14. If not, when did you leave?
15. Give the name of the school you attended last (or are attending now)
16. Have you been as far in the public elementary school as it can take you?
17. How far have you been in arithmetic? (Subjects—not pages)
18. Have you a diploma from any school? If so, what school?
19. Give full name and address of father, mother, or any person on whom you depend for help.
Name
Address
20. Is the above named person related to you? If so, in what way?
21. If admitted, do you promise to abide by the rules and regulations of the school? (If so, sign your name here.)
.....

QUESTIONS FOR BOYS ONLY.

NOTE: Every boy must enter one of five departments:

- A. Agriculture—Regular course.
 - B. Agriculture—Short course.
 - C. Day school.
 - D. Trade school.
 - E. Work class.
22. Which one of the five departments do you wish to enter the first year?
 23. If the trade school, what trade do you wish?
 24. If you enter E, what course do you wish to begin the following year?
 25. Should you be admitted to A, B, C, or D, can you pay your bills promptly each month?
 26. What regular or useful work have you done at home or elsewhere?
 27. How long did you work at it?
 28. Who was your employer?
 29. What pay did you earn?
 30. What other work have you done?
 31. What do you expect to do after completing your course at Hampton?

[Page 1.]

Note: Write a letter to Dr. Frissell¹ and return it in the same envelope with your application.

The letter should be written without any assistance whatever. Tell him about—

- (1) Your home—its surroundings; the work you have done at home to help.
 - (2) What influenced you to want to come to Hampton?
 - (3) Your school—the number of teachers, number of pupils, subjects you studied; tell about your manual-training classes; name the books you have read other than your school books.
 - (4) Your church—describe it, also your Sunday school.
32. Is this application in your own handwriting and was your letter to Dr. Frissell written without help?

QUESTIONS FOR GIRLS ONLY.

33. Have you ever studied cooking in school?
34. If so, where and for how long?
35. Have you ever taken sewing in school?
36. What experience have you had at home or elsewhere in general housework?
37. Have you ever earned any money by work of any kind?
38. If so, what was the work?
39. How long a time were you engaged in this work?
40. What other work have you done?
41. Every girl spends the first year either in a day school class or the domestic science work class. Which do you wish to enter?
42. If you are admitted to day school can you pay your bills promptly each month?
43. What do you expect to do after completing your course at Hampton?

Note: Write a letter to Dr. Frissell and return it in the same envelope with your application. The letter should be written without any assistance whatever. Tell him about—

- (1) Your home—its surroundings; the work you have done at home to help.
 - (2) What influenced you to want to come to Hampton?
 - (3) Your school—the number of teachers, number of pupils, subjects you studied; tell about your cooking and sewing classes; name the books you have read other than your school books.
 - (4) Your church—describe it and your Sunday school.
44. Is this application in your own handwriting and was your letter to Dr. Frissell written without help?

¹ The principal.

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS AND STUDENT RECORDS.

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[Page 4.]

1917.

(Please do not write on this side.)

Name.....
 Home address.....
 Present address.....
 Age.....
 Application blank sent.....
 Application received.....
 Application examined by.....
 Write.....
 Reference.....
 Admitted.....
 Department.....
 Refused.....

CLASS AND ATTENDANCE FORMS.

A simple system of individual class slips is always desirable. The accompanying slip is printed for use in duplicate, each pair of slips being folded on a perforation. The slips may be issued to the pupils every two months or oftener. One slip is given to the student and one retained by the teacher for filing.

Name.....		Class.....		
MARK 100-95 EXCELLENT; 95-90, VERY GOOD; 90-80, GOOD; 80-70, FAIR; BELOW 70, POOR. [Use only the initial letters E. V. G. G. F. F. + increases and - decreases the value of a mark.]				
Subject.	Class standing.	No. lessons in course.	No. times absent.	Spirit and effort.
Remarks.....				
January 27, 1917.				Teacher.....

DUPLICATE CLASS SLIP.

46927°—Bull. 38—17—13

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE.			
DAY SCHOOL.			
..... (Teacher.)	 (Date.)	
Student.	Attendance.	Class.	Period.

Modern education finds a cumulative record card, with space for recording admissions, discharges, and promotions throughout a child's school life, indispensable. The card reproduced herewith passes from teacher to teacher, or from school to school, as the pupil is promoted or transferred:

CUMULATIVE RECORD CARD—FRONT OF CARD.

THE CUMULATIVE RECORD CARD—BACK OF CARD.

A cumulative record card for use in secondary schools is given below:

CUMULATIVE RECORD CARD FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (FRONT).

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Name _____												1—Excellent. 4—Inferior.		2—Good. 5—Failure.		E—English. H—History. M—Mathematics. S—Science. L—Latin. G—German. F—French. A—Agriculture. MT—Man. Tr. MD—Mech. Dr. C—Cooking. SW—Sewing. AR—Art. EX—Expression. MU—Music. CA—Com. Arts. CS—Com. Sci.
1. Semester, 191—			2. Semester, 191—			3. Semester, 191—			4. Semester, 191—							
Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.					
5. Semester, 191—			6. Semester, 191—			7. Semester, 191—			8. Semester, 191—							
Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.	Subject.	Gr.	Cr.					

CUMULATIVE RECORD CARD FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS. (BACK.)

For office filing the loose-leaf form is often preferred. The blank below is in use in one of the larger colored institutions of secondary grade.

LOOSE LEAF STUDENT RECORD FORM.

Name Class Year

Subject.	First quarter.		Second quarter.		Third quarter.		Fourth quarter.		Teacher's remarks.
	Rank.	Attitude.	Rank.	Attitude.	Rank.	Attitude.	Rank.	Attitude.	

TESTS.

Subject.	Date.	Rank.	Character of test.	Remarks

General remarks.

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SPECIAL FORMS FOR AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENTS.

Institutions with well-organized agricultural and industrial departments have special need of detailed forms for reporting the work done. A card of this type for the agricultural department is reproduced herewith. This form is printed on fairly stiff cardboard and eyeleted, in order to facilitate permanent filing.

[Front.]

STUDENT RECORD CARD—AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

Name..... age..... height..... weight.....
 General physique..... faculties.....
 Home address.....

EXPERIENCE BEFORE ENTERING.

EXPERIENCE BEFORE ENTERING AS REGULAR AGRICULTURAL STUDENT.

Academic standing on entering.....

First year, 19—.

CLASS RECORD.										WORK RECORD.													
Study.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.		Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Total.
7										Farm.....													
										Dairy.....													
										Barn.....													
										Creamery.....													
										Horticulture.....													
										Floral.....													
										Poultry.....													

Academic standing.....

Notes.....

Vacation work.....

Second year, 19—.

CLASS RECORD.										WORK RECORD.													
Study.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.		Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Total.
										Farm													
										Dairy													
										Barn													
										Creamery													
										Horticulture													
										Floral													
										Poultry													

Academic standing.....

Notes.....

Vacation work.....

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Third year, 19—.

CLASS RECORD.										WORK RECORD.													
Study.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.		Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Total.
										Farm.....													
										Dairy.....													
										Barn.....													
										Creamery.....													
										Horticulture.....													
										Floral.....													
										Poultry.....													
										Cope farm.....													

Academic standing.....

Notes.....

Vacation work.....

[Back.]

Fourth year, 19—.

CLASS RECORD.										WORK RECORD.													
Study.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.		Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Total
										Farm													
										Dairy													
										Barn													
										Creamery													
										Horticulture													
										R. and G.													
										Floral													
										Poultry													
										Cope farm													

Academic standing.....

Notes.....

GENERAL NOTES.

RECORD AFTER LEAVING.

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DAILY REPORT, TRADE SCHOOL.

Trade..... Teacher reporting.....
Date.....

NOTE.—Mark E for excellent; V G for very good; G for good; F for fair; P for poor.

[illegible]

COST SHEET, TRADE SCHOOL.

Department..... Order No..... Date entered.....

[illegible]

Industrial training for girls can be readily reported upon in the "Housework card" and "Laundry record," reproduced herewith:

HOUSEWORK CARD.	
Bedmaking.....	Corridors—stairs.....
Sweeping.....	Table setting and clearing.....
Dusting.....	Dishwashing—care of towels.....
Washstand—wardrobe.....	Scrubbing.....
Floors—rugs.....	Silver cleaning—knife polishing.....
General appearance.....	Waiting on table.....
Bathroom—sinkroom.....	

Date.	Laundry record.	Remarks.
	Sorting clothing.....	
	Removing stains.....	
	Washing and rinsing.....	
	Bluing.....	
	Starching.....	
	Sprinkling and folding for ironing.....	
	Ironing unstarched clothing.....	
	Ironing starched clothing.....	
	Folding.....	
	Delivering.....	
	Care of laundry.....	
	Mending.....	

THE "HOUSEWORK CARD" AND "LAUNDRY RECORD" CARD.

Especially adaptable to use in the institutions for girl students in this report is some simple form of teacher's report, such as is suggested below:

Teacher's Report.

ROOM GIRLS.

Teacher.....
 Student.....
 Sweeping.....
 Dusting.....
 Washstand.....
 General arrangement.....
 Quick or slow.....
 Spirit.....
 Suggestions.....

The extent to which summer work is done by school and college students, especially those who are earning their way in whole or in part, makes desirable some record of the kind of employment and the success with which it is done. The following form, to be filled out by the employer of student labor, has been found useful in regulating student employment and making it fit in properly with the regular educational work of the institution.

Friends of the above-named institution employing its students will confer a great favor upon the institute by filling out this blank and adding any suggestion which may help in the educating and training of students under the care of the school:

A filing card on which to record in the office of the school all the available information with regard to summer employment is reproduced below:

Year.	Student employed.	Wages.	Time.	Employer's report.	Student's report.

Name

Address

Railroad point

Description and requirements

FILING CARD FOR SUMMER EMPLOYMENT.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

A "COMMENDATION" CARD.

Many of the devices for reporting on pupils' work unfortunately represent the negative results of instruction. The card below, used by New York City, is especially suggestive because it involves commendation rather than condemnation, and because it stresses certain human elements that are often neglected.

H. S. Form no. A			
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, THE CITY OF NEW YORK.			
SPECIAL REPORT TO PRINCIPAL.			
Family Name.	Given Name.	Yr. Cl. Sec. Rm.	Date.
IS REPORTED TO THE PRINCIPAL FOR—			
Ability to comprehend instructions			
Initiative			
Promptness			
Courtesy			
Accuracy			
Personal appearance			
Graduate of P. S.			
Principal			
Location			

THE "COMMENDATION" CARD.

Dr. William McAndrew says of this type of report:

The commendation report is a very pleasing kind of record. When a teacher discovers any particularly good feature in any pupil, or any noted improvement, she sends the pupil with such a card to the principal, in order that he may get acquainted not only with the bad pupils but with the good ones. If a pupil is reported for bad conduct the students' council takes charge of her, as we find that such discipline is more efficacious. If the students' council can not handle the case they refer it to the principal. But by means of this card the principal is kept cheerful, as he must compliment several people every morning, and this is good for his disposition.

XI. BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS.¹

The watchwords of American school-building policy have been said to be: "Education, economy, safety, health, and happiness."² To these may well be added beauty and appropriateness. It is obviously important that the school plant should be in harmony with all the aims of educational endeavor and that classroom theory should, as far as possible, be illustrated by the general form and condition of the buildings and grounds. Clearly a study of hygienic laws, economy, and design will be of little value if the school plant has been constructed in violation of the laws of health, good business, and good taste.

No educational institutions are more urgently in need of the intelligent application of the principles of sound building than the private and higher schools for Negroes in the United States. The influence of good design, good construction, and attractive surroundings upon character and citizenship is as important in the school as in the home; and the reflex action of the school upon the home is greater and more far-reaching than is generally understood. While the waste in construction is probably not much greater than with other groups of schools, the need for funds is far more pressing.

The scope of the problem is indicated by the fact that the total value of the plants of the 653 State, Federal, and private schools for Negroes is \$23,669,805. Of this amount \$5,204,307 is in the 28 State and Federal schools and \$18,465,498 in the 625 private institutions. The combined valuation of plants, endowment, and other property is \$34,224,535, of which \$23,669,805 is in plant, \$9,431,886 in endowment, and \$1,122,864 in other property.

The plan adopted in this chapter is to present general principles in terms of conditions observed at typical institutions. This method explains the frequent references to some schools and the omission of many others in which similar conditions probably exist. The purpose throughout has been constructive. It has been the endeavor to make these observations and notes in such a manner that they will serve in a constructive way as a stimulus in some degree to betterment in the physical expression and wellbeing of Negro schools.

¹ The study herewith presented of the buildings and grounds of typical schools for colored people was made under the supervision of I. N. Phelps Stokes, president of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, trustees, upon whose advice the services of A. H. Albertson were secured to make a personal study of a considerable number of typical institutions widely distributed through the Southern States. Mr. Albertson brought to the study not only the professional skill of an architect, but also varied experience in actual building operations and a thorough sympathy with the struggling efforts to educate a people limited in many ways. The study is also indebted to Mrs. Albertson, whose intimate knowledge of school problems made possible a more careful observation of the educational significance of the machinery and plant. While the references in this chapter are usually limited to the institutions visited, by Mr. and Mrs. Albertson, the general conclusions are also based upon the facts collected by the field agents of the Bureau of Education, who visited all the known private and higher schools for Negroes in the United States.

² Cleveland Foundation Survey, "School Buildings and Equipment," p. 13.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS OF BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS.

In approaching an institution, the first impression received is the one produced by the physical aspects of the buildings and grounds; that is, the natural and artificial characteristics of the grounds and the appearance and placement of the buildings. The natural effect depends upon the configuration or the exposure of the grounds, the vegetation, and any special features of landscape and waterscape that may exist; while the artificial characteristics are the result of any modification of the natural site made to fit it to its function, or any modification brought about by use or misuse.

Whatever may be said of the treatment of the grounds selected for the location of the particular institutions of learning visited, the sites are generally good, and in many instances admirable.

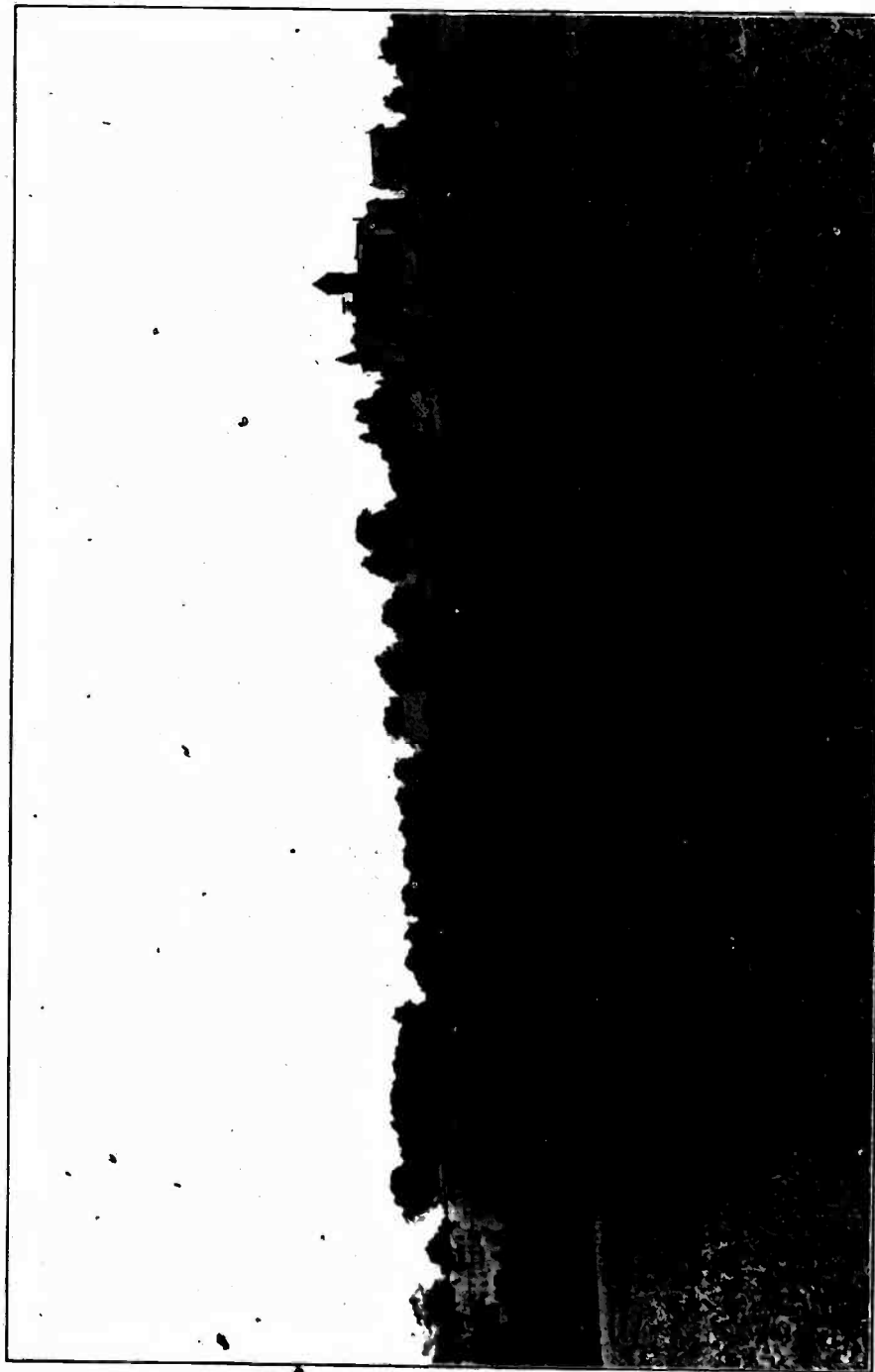
The attractiveness of the appearance of the buildings will be determined by a respect for the quality of the materials used, their fitness for their intended use, their position on the grounds, and that skillful or undefined proportioning of parts to the whole that satisfies and gives pleasure. The placement of the buildings as related to each other and to the conditions of the grounds will, if not adequately considered, give a feeling of confusion and lack of purpose; they will appear crowded, haphazard, or loose-jointed; on the contrary, if they are coordinated, they will give a sense of unity of purpose, order, convenience, and usefulness.

Hampton Institute at Hampton, Va., illustrates the problem. Hampton is delightfully situated, with its river in front, its trees everywhere, and its well-kept buildings, drives, and grounds. There are few, if any, colored schools that equal it; and it is certain none surpass it. Some of the buildings may be old and stiff, but the care which they receive, and the appearance of mellowness and permanency given them by grass, vines, and plants makes them far more attractive than new buildings without the accompaniment of vegetation and indifferently kept.

Hampton is mentioned, however, not only because the physical aspects of its buildings and grounds are of a high order, but also because they could just as well be of a still higher order. Hampton is not built upon a plan. It undoubtedly has an educational system, a financial policy, and an administrative organization, but the buildings and grounds are without order. It may be assumed that each building was planned and designed to fit a different purpose, and that each part of each building was considered in relation to the other parts, and even to the finished structure, so that it might serve its purpose conveniently and with completeness. The buildings and grounds, considered in their relation to each other, have, however, evidently received no comprehensive attention. Apparently, when the time came for a new building, it was placed wherever the impulse or convenience of the moment suggested, without regard to the effect of its location upon the appearance or usefulness of the general plan. It is possible that care and thought were bestowed upon the location of each building before it was built, but it does not appear that experience, skill, and good judgment were brought to bear upon the group planning of the buildings as forming parts of a whole rather than units of a collection. As the whole is greater than any of its parts, so a general plan of the buildings and grounds of an institution is of greater moment than the plan of any particular building or any separate part of the grounds.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BU. ETIN, 1916, NO. 38 PLATE 29.

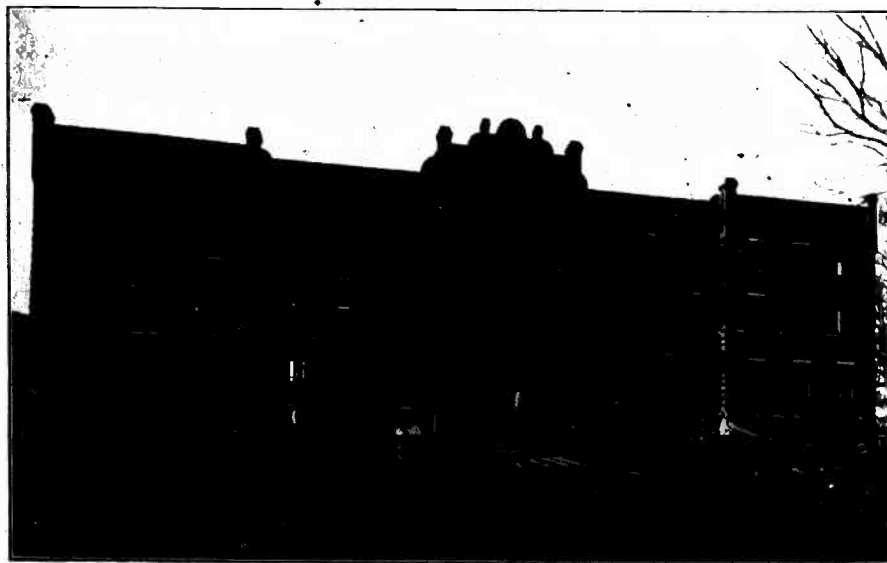


ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, LAWRENCEVILLE, VA.



A. PROPOSED PLAN OF GIRLS' DORMITORY FOR LIVINGSTONE COLLEGE.

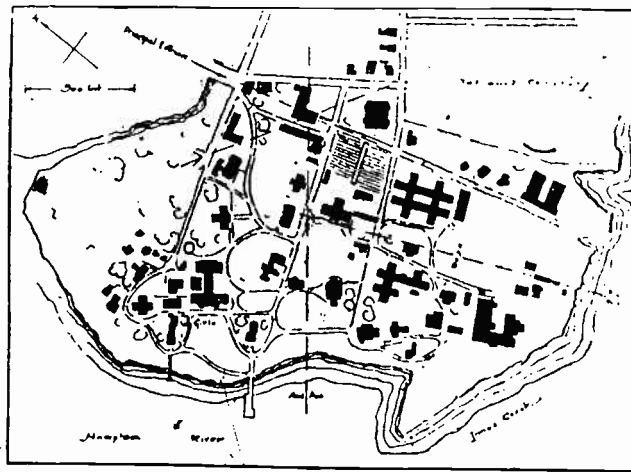
This plan was discarded after consultation with expert architects as too high, too much of the city type, and otherwise objectionable.



B. NEW BUILDING OF LIVINGSTONE COLLEGE.

Note change of plans from the abnormally high building originally planned.

Reference to the survey of Hampton will show a number of conditions which are the direct result of undirected growth under the *laissez-faire* policy of development. The surveyor's plat gives no intimation, implied or expressed, of a central controlling purpose, of a body with well-coordinated members; there is no finely proportioned physique to house the well-formed Hampton idea; there is no structure or framework with its highly articulated component parts; there is no main axis to give uprightness and vigor. All this applies to the placement of buildings on the grounds with reference to each other and should not be confused with the highly attractive expression of the grounds and trees in themselves, despite the haphazard location of the buildings.



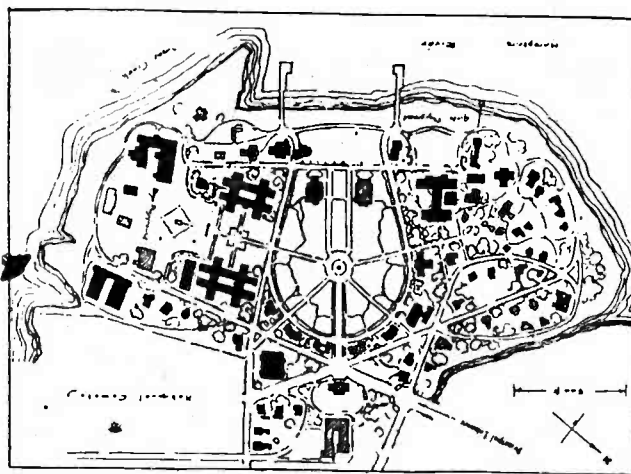
SURVEYOR'S PLAT OF HAMPTON INSTITUTE.

A comparison of the existing conditions as shown by the surveyor's plat with the proposed plan clearly shows the value of a predetermined general scheme of development. The conditions as they exist are without order or expression; they are inert. The entrance seems to be a backway—a backway made delightful, however, with varied vegetable forms.

The main entrance to the grounds and to the institution can not be readily discerned, and when discovered gives the impression of being the back way in; it certainly does not suggest the main approach to a large institution of high standing. Strangers find themselves well inside the grounds before they realize that the gates of Hampton Institute have been passed. Not for a moment is it suggested that the entrance should be some pompous and outward-looking monument. It is to be expected, however, that guests will be taken in by the front way and that they will be made aware, by an appropriate combination of gardening and architecture, when they have passed from the public street. Consideration at an early date in the history of the institution of a comprehensive plan of buildings and grounds would have quite naturally provided such an entrance.

The great opportunity was the water front, and although the grounds and buildings have been disposed with something of a disregard for the presence of the Hampton

River, fortunately such a wonderful, natural asset could not, by simply being ignored, be eliminated. Here was an occasion when the quiet, sweeping views should have become an integral part of the general plan of development. There is no evident purpose to have the buildings and grounds pay respect to the element of life and vitality that water always possesses, by having them behold the face of the river. This the existing arrangement has not undertaken to do. It seems almost unnecessary or unsympathetic to expect more of Hampton's opportunities when so much has already been compassed. To stand on the greensward back from the shore and comprehend a long view of the water-stretches out through the venerable trees of Hampton's campus is worth a journey. Still, it can be said that a greater degree of physical perfection is within very easy reach.



ADOPTED GENERAL PLAN OF HAMPTON.

The new plan has an expression of purpose, coherence, and unity. There is a mutual relation of the parts to the whole. The new plan would give a sense of scope and simplicity that the existing plan does not offer. Except for the president's house, the present arrangement ignores the magnificent water front, while the new plan comprehends the sweep of water view as an integral part of the arrangement.

Remarkable as it may seem, not one of the institutions visited has already had the forethought or vision to develop its physical aspects in accordance with an orderly and well-thought-out general scheme, providing for its evolution both in growth and in variation; and only a few have taken thought for the morrow by undertaking, more or less satisfactorily, to provide for future growth and development by a comprehensive study of their trend and scope, resulting in a general plan for future guidance. It should not be expected that unifying the buildings and grounds by a predetermined general plan would preclude modification of this plan as important future conditions might suggest. It might be as much of an error slavishly to follow a general plan previously adopted as to have no plan at all, but such a plan after adoption should be carried out unless there should be good reasons for changing it.

As might be expected, Hampton Institute has, even though late, adopted a comprehensive means of taking advantage in the future of the value of arrangement of buildings with respect to each other and with respect to the grounds. A general plan of the entire property has been prepared by competent architects, and has been officially adopted by the institution for guidance in its further development. A glance at the plan (p. 206) makes clear, even to one not acquainted with Hampton or its needs, that here is an organized physical body with greater and lesser parts coordinated and knit together, developed with definite purpose and expressive of definite work to be performed. Here are forethought, order, convenience, completeness, and a due respect for the fitness of things.

This plan of growth includes a central, physical motive, axis, or spinal column. When the buildings and grounds are developed in accordance with this plan, they will eventually form an institution whose physical aspects are strengthened and controlled by a backbone. The campus, or common, forms the new central feature dominating all the parts; it is the central control. It allows the buildings to come forth and relate themselves to the campus and join each other as parts of the whole. The drives and paths are considered as arteries of communication and are placed in relation to the campus, making travel direct as well as interesting. The new plan, it will be seen, has brought the main entrance out of hiding, transformed it from a back way to its hereditary estate, and opened it freely to all friends who would enter.

By the artful device of opening the common broadly upon the Hampton River, the river and the common immediately become related, and the two joining as complements form the motive of the entire scheme. By this method Hampton River, which now wanders pleasantly aside, too often unnoticed or hidden from sight, will in the new arrangement come pleasantly into view, show forth its color and motion, and enter into the physical being of Hampton.

Hampton is the only institution visited that has definitely discarded undirected and patchwork growth for a complete and well-balanced scheme for the guidance of future growth; and this, it may be said, is the purpose of mentioning Hampton at such length. Tuskegee Institute, Roger Williams University, St. Pauls School, the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Greensboro, N. C., and Virginia Union University are the only others noted as having given attention to a general plan. In these the results, though often elementary, will in varying degrees better the convenience and appearance of the buildings and grounds. The plans may be homemade, yet the endeavor is most commendable, and should encourage other institutions to work out more complete plans for their physical growth. Tuskegee "just grew" and is still growing with such direction as immediate development suggests.

Virginia Union's ground plan was devised by the president. Although it follows the gardener's method of winding drives and devious paths, with no straight lines to give vigor and directness, still its buildings are simply and rather effectively arranged on a gentle slope and show a great improvement in aspect over the schools that in their youth gave no heed to their manhood. The buildings are variously disposed, although, like Browning Industrial School, at Camden, S. C., and others, they all face in the same direction; that is, toward the street, even though there is plenty of land to spare for a more intimate arrangement. A school, like a person or a family, does well to seek first

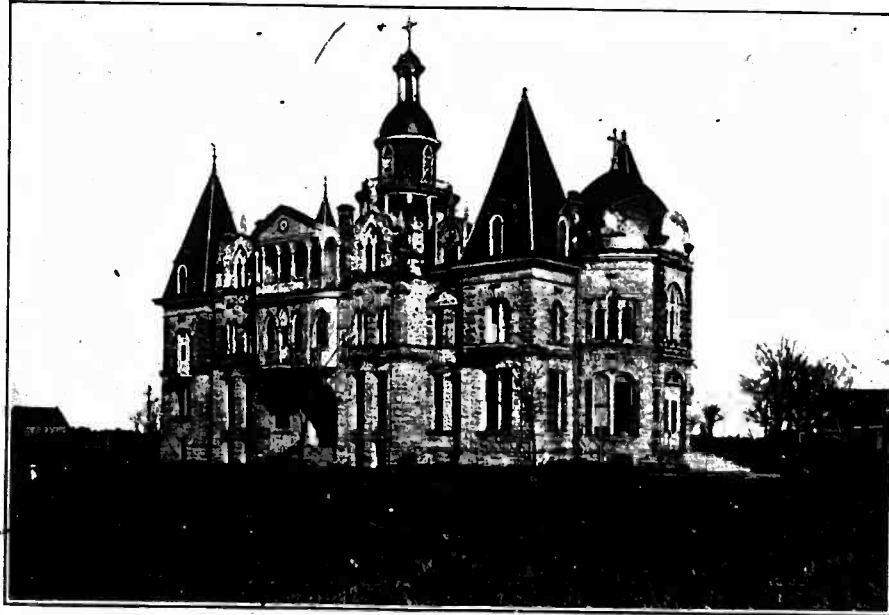
its own privacy and evolution; and the physical environment that will best fill the needs of the school and best express its inner processes will generally look inward. In facing all the buildings of Virginia Union in one direction, and that toward the street, privacy is lost, no central campus can be developed, and the fronts of some of the buildings are made to face the backs of others. The institution is not for the passer-by on the street; it is for the student, for the higher life and the development of certain standards and ideals. Wherever the topography and other controlling conditions permit, the principal buildings of an institution or of a component group should be so arranged as to surround and protect the university life. Except for the approach, the currents of travel are from one building to another, and the buildings should, whenever possible for convenience, face these currents of travel; if they do, they will face each other and not the public highway, and will incidentally and of necessity produce an inner court of privacy, or a campus for common university activities.

Military earthworks of the Civil War originally occupied the site where Virginia Union University now stands. These earthworks have been razed and no mark left to commemorate them. It would have been interesting and appropriate to have retained at least a part of these earthworks and to have incorporated them in the general scheme of the grounds. It is the taking advantage of just such accidental features that produces character and individuality in landscape architecture.

St. Paul's has several tentative plans of development, but none of them has as yet been officially approved. An expensive masonry dormitory has been located and is just being completed in advance of the adoption of a definite policy as to the position of future buildings. The school is situated on a sharp hill too small for free expansion; and the solution of a general plan would have been difficult enough without the additional problem of a large, new building, placed without reference to a comprehensive scheme of development.

Okolona School in Mississippi, stands on open, level ground. Its homemade plan is simple, honest, and quite as adequate as could be expected without the aid of special skill and experience in landscape architecture and institutional planning. It opens one side of its grounds to the highway, and along the other three sides the buildings, few in number, are ranged, facing toward the center. A U-shaped drive starts from the public highway on one side, circles the ground in front of the buildings, and returns to the highway on the other side. This is a marked advance over the type represented by Virginia Union University, where all the buildings face the public street, although they are placed at various and considerable distances from it. It is, on the other hand, inferior to Hampton's new plan of development.

Clafin University, Orangeburg, S. C., is placed on a level, pointed piece of ground adjoining the Southern Railroad. The placement of the buildings is as confused as it well could be, with front doors facing back doors, buildings standing at angles, and placed with little regard for each other or for their own uses. There is no main entrance or approach, and one wanders in, not knowing whether he is entering by the front or the rear. The two newest and finest buildings turn their backs upon the rest of the university and face outward to no better outlook than the railroad, not more than 250 feet away. This is a marked instance of the harm that was done by not adopting a general plan at an earlier date. In the suggested plan of development



A. IMMANUEL LUTHERAN COLLEGE, GREENSBORO, N. C.

An unusual mixture of architectural styles.

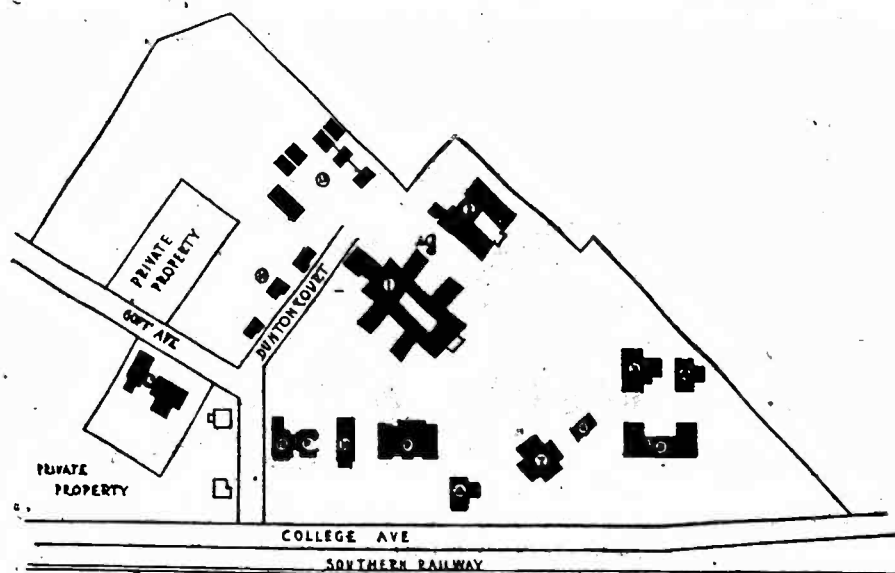


B. STORER COLLEGE, HARPERS FERRY, W. VA.

A stone building with wooden lintels.

the confusion of buildings is turned into a simple and orderly arrangement, with the front of each building directly accessible from the front of the other buildings, and therefore facing inward upon a central common somewhat secluded from the public. Incidentally this places the backs of the buildings to the property line and to the railroad, as the uses of the buildings obviously require. An axis or approach naturally suggested by the triangular shape of the land is also established, giving to the university the appearance and the fact of greater convenience and better centralized activities.

The numerous difficulties in the way of the adoption of such a plan are well known and need not be recited, but they are not insurmountable. The only important interference with the existing arrangement is the necessity of moving the girls' dormitory.



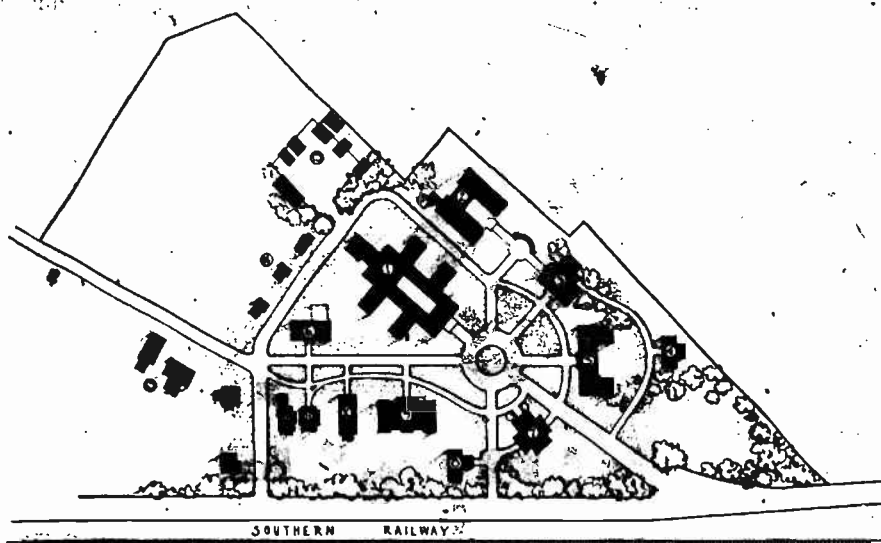
PRESENT ARRANGEMENT OF BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS, CLAPIN UNIVERSITY, ORANGEBURG, S. C.

Some of the buildings are placed parallel with the railroad; some parallel to the property line, others at odd angles. Two of the newest and best buildings—the girls' dormitory and the academic buildings (5 and 9)—face the railroad and turn their backs upon the institution, as evidenced by the use of back doors. This is also true of 10, 11, and 12.

This appears like a considerable undertaking, but is a perfectly feasible work of engineering, inasmuch as larger buildings are frequently moved; and when the comprehensive worth of such a general plan to the university is weighed, the expense of moving the building is relatively insignificant.

Livingstone College, Salisbury, N. C., is situated well out on the edge of the suburbs. The work of the college is carried on in a main row of four brick buildings and a few less important frame ones. The grounds consist of 40 acres; the site, on an easy, rolling knoll, covered here and there by scattering native oaks and maples, is attractive. No general arrangement of the grounds has been undertaken. The buildings all face the street, which is not far removed toward the north. This institution is referred to

particularly because of a difficulty that now confronts it, due to the absence of a general plan. A new girls' dormitory is projected at a cost of about \$37,000. The row of buildings is so placed in one corner of the property, facing the street, that no appropriate position is left for the new dormitory, notwithstanding the fact that the site stretches away to the rear to the extent of 40 acres. This college has built itself into a corner. Had a general plan of the grounds been evolved at an earlier date, the approach of the present condition would have become apparent and would have been avoided; or, had the row of brick buildings faced directly the other way—that is, south instead of north—then future growth would have been provided for, including a normal site



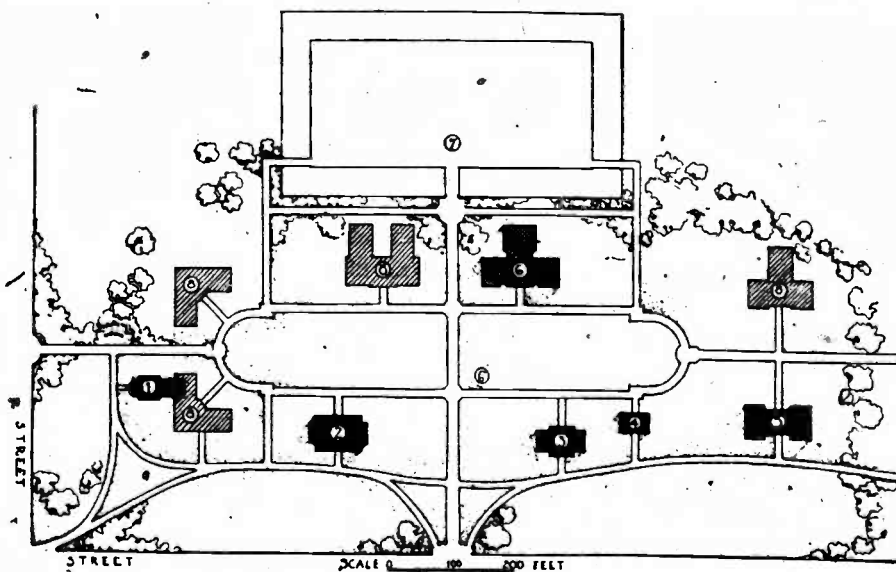
SUGGESTED PLAN FOR CLAPLIN UNIVERSITY.

This is developed with the idea of indicating what still may be done with the institution with a general plan. By this plan the various buildings face the activities of the institution and pay as little regard as possible to the railroad. The placing of the buildings for convenient use has naturally resulted in something like a central axis and the buildings have become parts of an organized physical unit. It is suggested that buildings Nos. 3, 5, and 6, indicated by diagonal lines are moved. No. 6 (music building) is indicated as having an additional wing. The removal of buildings such as these is perfectly feasible. Shrubbery is indicated about the fence next the railroad to further close off the railroad and help the university to look inward and pay more regard to its own activities. Farm buildings (No. 15) have also been inclosed and surrounded with trees and shrubbery.

for the proposed girls' dormitory. The ground plan herewith shows one of a number of plans that might have been adopted originally; it is perhaps the only one that can be used now to save the existing situation. The row of brick buildings can be made usable to the south or rear by making the minor changes necessary to open doorways in that direction. In buildings where this can not be done, existing end doors can be utilized by turning paths southward from them. Directly south of the brick row a campus of suitable size and with appropriate features could be laid out. As shown by the illustration, the south side of the campus would then be the normal position for additional buildings, including the new dormitory for girls. There are several main advantages

that would be derived from this plan—the girls' dormitory would have a position worthy of its uses and one that would enhance the general appearance of the college; the present row of brick buildings would face the campus and its own activities instead of the public affairs of the street, and, what is most important, the way for further growth would be left open.

Clark University, Gammon Seminary, and Thayer Home have an opportunity to take advantage of unique natural features. The succession of rolling knolls, covered with extensive growth of native oak, offer commanding sites for the various buildings, while the vales between form the natural driveways. Yet the three affiliated institu-



GENERAL PLAN OF LIVINGSTONE COLLEGE.

Buildings 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (in black) are the existing buildings. Building No. 1 is an old frame building used as girls' dormitory. The proposed girls' dormitory is to be located at 6. No. 7 indicates the athletic field.

Livingstone has no general plan of arrangement; and if the dormitory for girls were placed at 6 a general plan could be developed as shown. When the old dormitory (1) is removed it will leave a position for some new building (8).

This plan calls for the removal of no buildings, provides an organized physical development for the college, and allows unlimited growth to the rear if this later becomes necessary.

tions occupying the same grounds have made no plans to add these native gifts to their resources by absorbing them into a comprehensive plan expressive of the life of the allied schools.

Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn., is situated in the suburbs on a tract of land too small for free expansion. There are about half a dozen large, substantial brick structures scattered about the level grounds, with here and there a few trees. The dining hall is placed at one end of the narrow grounds and the boys' dormitory inconveniently distant at the other. It is an obvious fact that, generally speaking, buildings used in common should, where practicable, be placed on the central axis. The uni-

versity grew to its present size without a plan, and there is no indication that one has yet been formed. The city streets cut the grounds into many parts, and destroy all semblance of unity, academic privacy, or scholastic mien. A university can not satisfactorily be developed upon city streets. It may, to be sure, back up against the streets with its buildings forming a wall about its inner life, like Columbia University in New York, but even this is only a good solution under difficult and undesirable conditions.

Few of the institutions visited have their buildings too widely separated. Voorhees School, Denmark, S. C., is an exception; the boys' dormitory at this institution is nearly a quarter of a mile from the chapel. Quite a number of the schools have their buildings too closely massed, generally because they are located in cities and their grounds are too small. The question of moving an institution is a serious one, but there are several schools built on small grounds in cities that should not hesitate to face the conditions. The land has become valuable and could be sold to advantage; the locations are no longer central to the students attending; the buildings are old, too high, and otherwise unmodern and unsuited to their uses. New Orleans University, Paine College, at Augusta, Ga., and Hartshorn School at Richmond, Va., are examples of institutions belonging to this class. They are gradually being surrounded by unsympathetic residential districts or the institutional life is hampered by the smoke, noise, and unattractiveness of encroaching factories, railroads, and other industrial plants.

Hartshorn and Virginia Union, Richmond, Va., have recently had to suffer from a new railroad bordering their grounds. Hartshorn is being hard pressed by factories and other manufacturing plants, the water supply is inadequate, the buildings are too high, and the location is no more central to students than other sites more appropriate. If a new location is found that is practicable, it is probable that the present buildings and grounds could be sold for light manufacturing purposes.

Leland University occupies 10 acres of valuable ground in one of the fine residential districts of New Orleans. The two main buildings, erected in 1875, are four stories high; they are substantially built of brick, but rather badly cared for. The buildings and grounds are valued at \$400,000, most of the value being in the grounds. Leland is tightly hemmed in by high-class residences of white people, and the presence of the university is not favorably regarded by the neighboring residents, particularly as the students come from other sections. The property is sufficiently valuable, if sold, to enable the university to relocate in more normal and more congenial surroundings and with enlarged, modern facilities.

The North Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical College has an attractive location on the edge of Greensboro. The property covers 25 acres, but the buildings are arranged on a limited area surrounded by streets on three sides. The grounds have a very slight roll and are embellished by native oaks and other trees. Although up to the present the college has developed without a general plan, the buildings are well disposed and can readily become part of a comprehensive scheme of growth. Three general plans are now under consideration, no one of which, however, seems sufficiently comprehensive or satisfactory, as they all are more in the nature of gardening plans than of landscape architecture. There are four main buildings and several secondary ones, the main

* Since this statement was written, this property has been sold and the proceeds are to be used in the erection of a new plant in a suburban or rural community.

buildings being of brick, substantially built, about 20 years old, and well preserved. The placing of two new buildings is now under consideration. The college has grown on a straight-line plan and is rather stiff. The old straight-line layout is now allowed to dominate the location of the new agricultural building, to the disadvantage of the general appearance of the grounds as well as of the building itself. The proposed site of the central heating plant, while economical, is obtrusive and too close to the boys' dormitory, on account both of the smoke and of the unsightliness that usually is allowed to accompany a power plant. There is likely to be an unfortunate result if the entire institution is not now studied by some architect or landscape architect of experience and ability, and the future development of the physical aspects determined, including the location and treatment of the two proposed new buildings.

The instances previously given of deficiencies in the usefulness and appropriateness of the buildings and grounds, whether due to lack of forethought or to inherent difficulties, make clearer the value of a definite general plan of development. It is indefensible that any work of importance and permanence, particularly an institution of learning, should be advanced without adequate and serious consideration of the future. A study of the interrelations between the physical aspects of buildings and grounds and the institutional work to be performed will incidentally and immediately require a comprehensive survey of the future field, function, and growth of the institution itself as an educational force. Vision and imagination of a high constructive order will be called for. Herein lies the greatest reflex benefit of such a study on the physical well-being of an institution. While the educational functions of a school may increase and multiply even when hampered more or less by its physical infirmities, yet it is true that the plant is not at all likely to be developed without a clear knowledge of the educational purposes of the school.

A general plan will provide for growth, present and future, without confusion among the buildings and without the possibility of school buildings, dormitories, and landscape work done now, having to be redone later. It will arrange the buildings in such a way that the sum of the steps to be taken will be the least possible; it will dispose the buildings most economically for the receiving of supplies, the disposal of waste, and the operation of the utilities—heat, light, and power, water and sewerage; and at the same time will preserve the natural advantages of the location—vistas, native groves, little hills, valleys, and streams. The buildings will be given a character suggested by their uses, their locality, and the aspect of the grounds. The grounds, in addition to having the natural advantages preserved and enhanced, will be added to the buildings and developed out of them by vines and shrubbery, driveways, and sweep of ground. Such methods of development will produce convenience, order, simplicity, unity of purpose and appearance, resulting in a dominating environment that will impress students with the same simple and natural qualities as those out of which the physical being grew. Each part, whether a building or an element of the landscape work, will combine to express the body of educational ideas for which the institution stands.

DESIGN AND PLANNING OF BUILDINGS.

The successful design and planning of buildings require the satisfying and coordinating of various groups of conditions. It should go without saying that the use to which a building is to be put is the great factor that determines or should determine its essential

character, modified more or less by the cost and by the nature of available materials. Materials when used in a manner true to their nature will produce true and honest construction, often enhanced by the test of wear and time. The physical properties and natural qualities of materials must be allowed to determine their use; otherwise the violation of their true character ends in artificiality, weakness, and false construction. Queen Anne houses are not built of stone, nor are Gothic structures built of wood; yet there are some colored school buildings where wood has been made to take the place of stone and where Gothic and Neo-Greek architecture has been constructed of galvanized iron. The use of concrete blocks as quoins, painted white to imitate marble, is scarcely straightforward, and when time reveals the true nature of the pretense the effect is far more objectionable than the plain concrete blocks. One academic building visited has the parts visible from the road painted, while the rear is unpainted.

The exterior is the natural outgrowth of the plan, its visible form and protection, just as the appearance of nature's living forms is at once an expression and a protection of the inward life. The Teachers' Home at Emerson Normal and Industrial Institute,



NEW BUILDING OF THAYER HOME, ATLANTA, GA.

A commendable type of two-story building for combined educational and home use of girl students and teachers. The location is an attractive one—on a knoll among native oak trees.

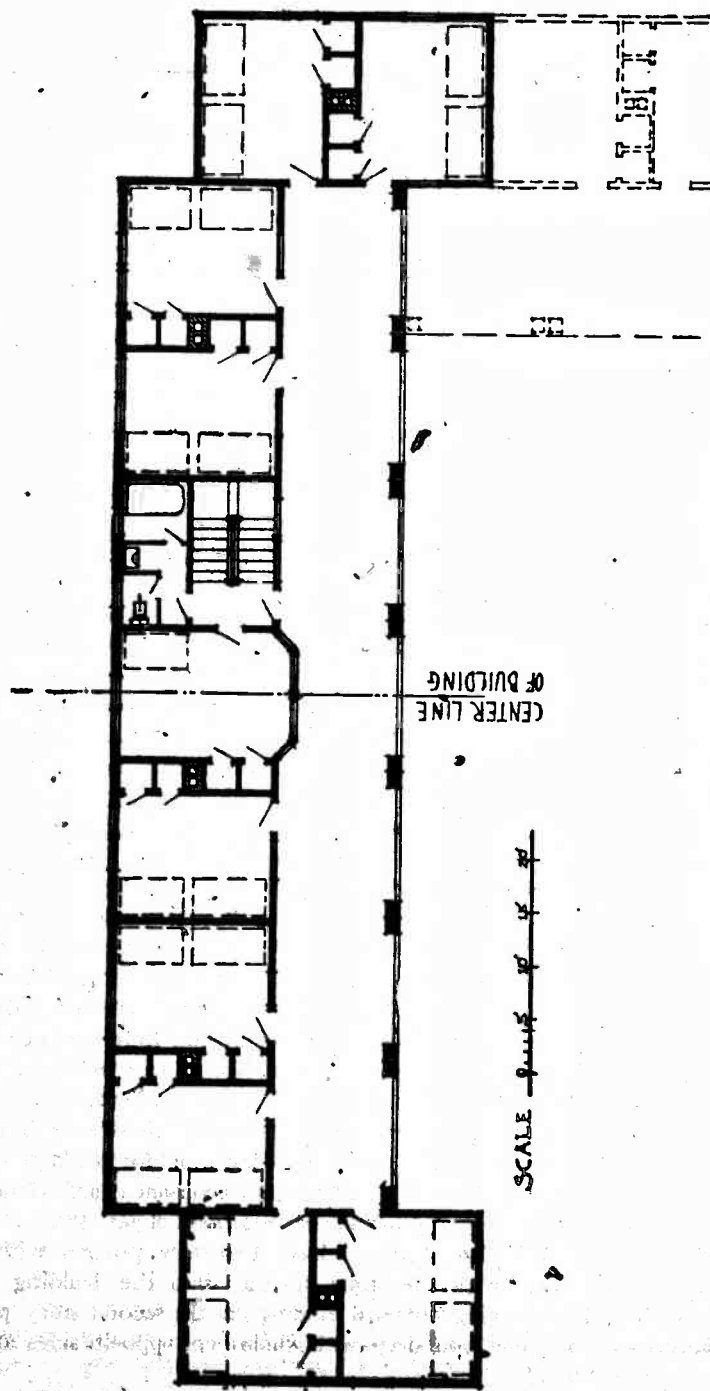
Mobile, Ala. (Pl. 32B), is an attractive example of a simple, natural, exterior expression of inward uses, whereas the design for a proposed girls' dormitory at Livingstone College, Salisbury, N. C., suggests rather the appearance of a city office building of a quarter of a century ago than that of an inviting modern country dormitory for happy living. Many of the school homes for girls that exist in connection with the institutions visited are admirable examples of simplicity and cheerfulness, notably Kent Home, Greensboro, N. C., Peck School, New Orleans, and Thayer Home, Atlanta, Ga. They are low, well built, and attractive and domestic in atmosphere.

It would hardly be possible to make a general classification of the exterior character or architecture of the southern school buildings, but perhaps the type that occurs more than any other is the old mansard or academy style that flourished about 30 years ago and unfortunately still survives. It is usually four stories high, built of brick, and invariably topped by a story in the mansard roof that stands almost up and down above the cornice. Examples of mansard buildings may be seen at Flak, Paine, Walden, Hartshorn, Bennett, Livingstone, Scotia, Clark, Morehouse, New Orleans, Okolona, McHarry, Roger Williams, and Walker Baptist. Plate 34A gives a good idea of the

appearance of these buildings. They are usually well constructed, probably because they were built at a time when flimsy construction was less common than now. The buildings have served their time with credit and something of dignity, and although still fulfilling their ancient purpose, they stand to-day antiquated and diametrically opposed to modern standards for educational buildings. The buildings are twice too many stories in height; the individual stories are 50 per cent too high; they are planned for too many school functions under one roof—boys' dormitory, girls' dormitory, classrooms, administration department, dining room, and chapel; the lighting for classrooms is duolateral instead of unilateral; the fire protection and panic egress are inadequate; there is an insufficient amount of light, the windows being too small and too far from the ceiling; and there is no plumbing except that installed in recent years. These deficiencies are common to the mansard type.

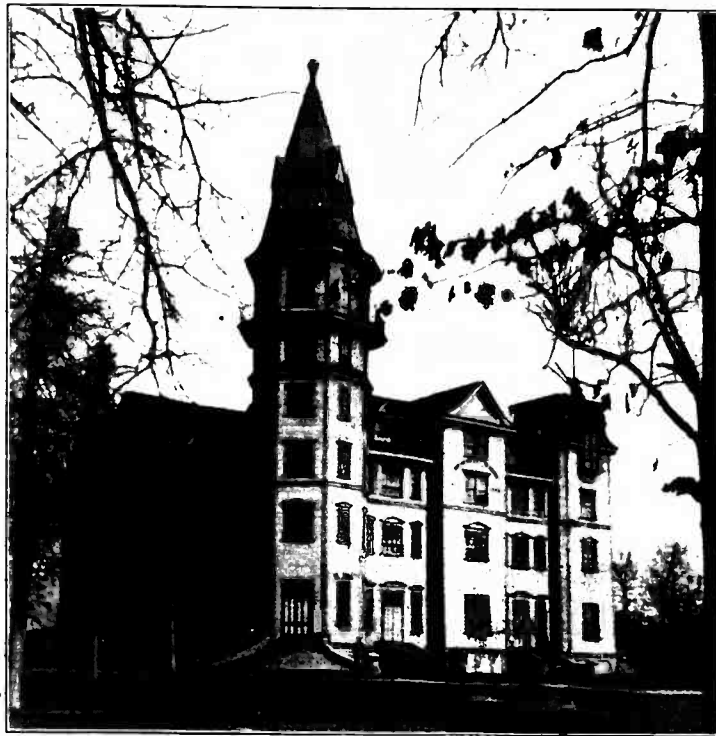
Colonial, Renaissance, and a certain very recent type of school architecture are the only other styles that can be said to be in common use, most of the buildings, however, not being sufficiently consistent and homogeneous to be considered as belonging to any definite architectural type. Of these three styles the different forms of Colonial are the most used, although not so extensively as would be expected from the domestic origin of this type. Out of 40 schools visited, about 10 have used some form of the Colonial style in at least one more or less important building. It should not be inferred that the adoption of a particular style or type means a monotonous repetition of similar buildings. Indeed, assuming the body materials to be the same, considerable variations in plan and in the exterior are desirable—as in Virginia Union, for example, where all the buildings follow the same general type, thus producing an interesting relation of parts and a homogeneous whole. None of the institutions has as yet definitely and fully adopted the Colonial style, despite the fact that it is the only true American architecture, with variations indigenous and appropriate not only to each section of the original thirteen Colonies but to the whole country. Moreover, it has a unique position among all the historic styles of architecture in that it has been developed to be equally appropriate and pleasing in wood, brick, or stone. In what manner and for what reason American architecture drifted away from the severe simplicity, the beauty, and the utility of Colonial, to the pompous and stilted mansard type, is not of immediate concern. It is worth notice, however, that an early day will to a considerable degree see a return of the native Colonial. As evidence and examples of the welcome renaissance may be cited the academic and administrative building of Claflin University, the general school building of the Montgomery School for girls, the academic building of Browning Industrial School at Camden, S. C. (Pl. 36), the teachers' dormitory of Emerson Normal and Industrial Institute at Mobile, Ala. (Pl. 32B), and several buildings at Tuskegee and Hampton.

The buildings of the Port Royal Agricultural and Industrial School near Beaufort S. C., taken in conjunction with the unaffected Colonial dormitory for teachers at the Emerson Institute, suggest the possibility of developing an economical and attractive type of dormitory for country and possibly for suburban schools of less than average size). The buildings of the Port Royal school have two-story porches with the stairs on the porch, in one case with the stairs starting into the building from the ground floor porch and by turning outward landing on the second story porch. Two of these dormitories are only one room deep, with windows on opposite sides afford-



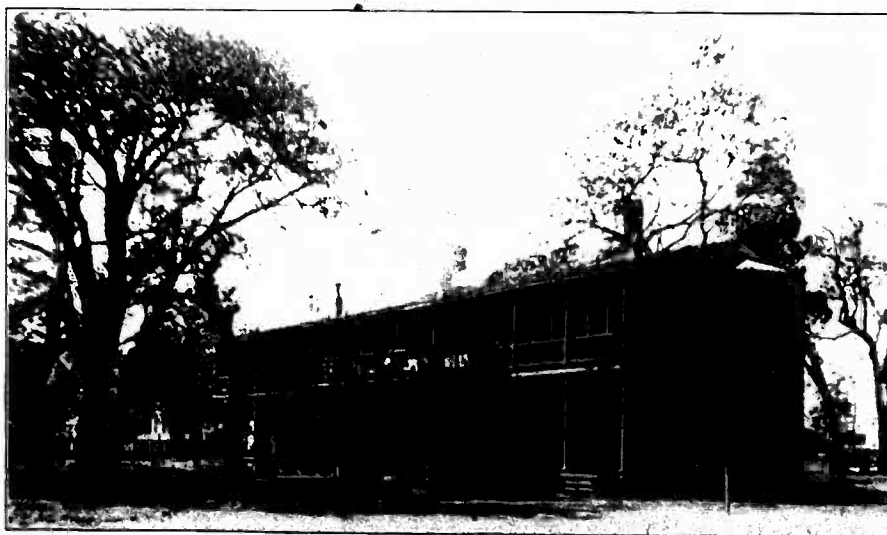
SUGGESTED TYPE PLAN FOR TWO-STORY DORMITORY.

Developed for the small country schools. This plan is suggested by the teachers' dormitory at Emerson Institute and from the boys' dormitory at Shattuck School. It is so planned that the building can be extended at any time. Each room has two closets, and two windows on opposite sides, affording cross ventilation. The director's room projects upon the porch and opens into the stairway near the toilet, giving good command of dormitory activities. The plan is inexpensive.



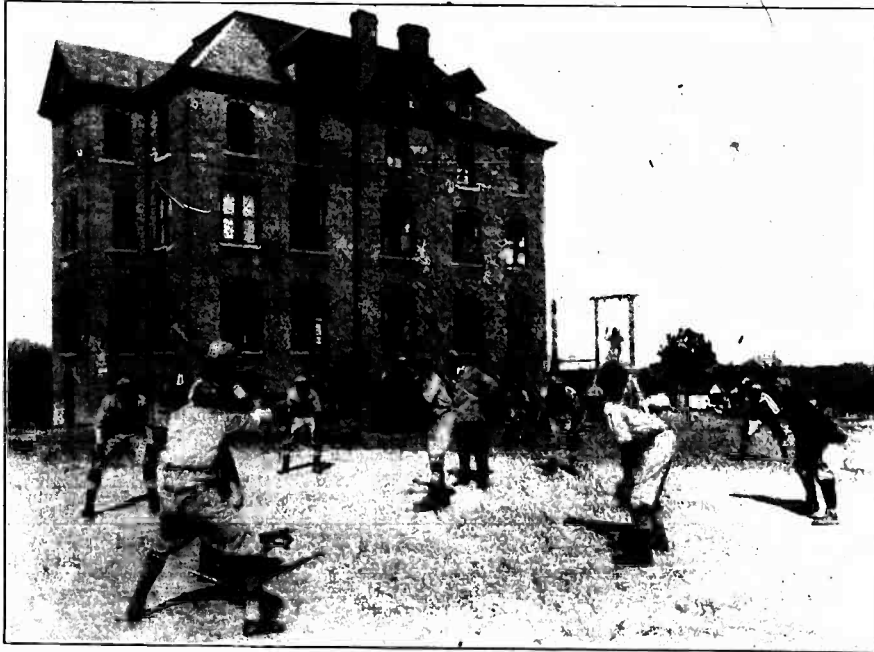
A. MORRILL HALL, STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, ORANGEBURG, S. C.

A type of frame construction to be avoided. The building is too high and has much waste space.

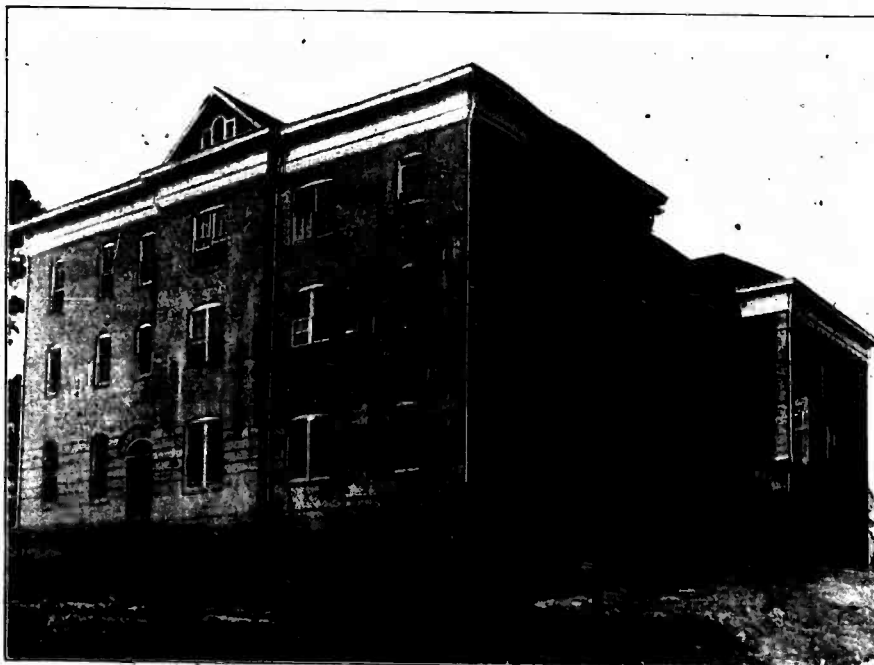


B. REMODELED TEACHERS' HOME, EMERSON NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, MOBILE, ALA.

A convenient, attractive, and adaptable Southern type.



A. BOYS' DORMITORY, BENNETT COLLEGE, GREENSBORO, N. C.



B. GIRLS' DORMITORY, SNOW HILL NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, SNOW HILL, ALA.

A new building, designed by the industrial training teacher and built by student labor. A city building erected in the rural district far from any city.

ing cross-ventilation, an arrangement which is apparently followed also in the teachers' dormitory at Emerson Institute. The proposed type plan has the windows opposite each other, thus insuring some sunlight in every room, irrespective of the position of the building with reference to the sun, and securing adequate ventilation. The type dormitory has no hallway to intercept the light and air. The porches, if built facing south, would offer shade in hot weather and protection from the elements in winter. By placing the monitor's room adjoining the stairs and projecting it on to the porch of the dormitory, command is retained and, incidentally, a more desirable room is provided. It is planned to have the dormitory heated by stoves, although the use of any other method would not change the arrangement. Places for two single beds and two closets are provided in each room.

The exterior of the teachers' dormitory of Emerson Normal and Industrial Institute is a simple form of Southern Colonial and very much resembles the unique houses of Charleston, S. C., which have their ends to the street, and have double-deck porches and outside stairs. The dormitory is built of wood, the story heights are low, the building is close to the ground and plain in appearance. Due to these facts and to the omission of the hall, the cost of this type would be very low. The dormitory of the Port Royal school, the Emerson Institute dormitory, and the Charleston homes referred to are all two stories in height, which is as high as this type will permit, and indeed it is as high as any suburban or country dormitory of frame construction should be built. This simple form of the Southern Colonial, as exemplified by the dormitory of the Emerson Institute, appears to be very appropriate for the smaller rural institutions. It is very homelike, exceedingly simple, free from all pretense, and more domestic than institutional.

In sharp contrast with the foregoing simple buildings is one located in a flat section of North Carolina. It is a city building, regaled with the furbelows of seven styles of architecture—Colonial Gothic, Classic, Florentine, French, Renaissance, and Byzantine. It is built of granite with cement lintels that should have been granite; one façade is built of galvanized iron; the ceilings are wastefully high; the atmosphere is barny; the attic is a maze of waste construction; and the building is crowned with towers, spires, domes, and turrets, and girt about with incongruous façades, bays, and excrescences. It was designed by a preacher after a study of postcard pictures of churches in various parts of the world, and was planned by a mechanic. It is estimated that the eccentricities of design and the errors of planning have added 50 per cent to the cost of the building. With all this show and false architecture there is no heating plant. Stoves are used, and stove-pipes, black and rusty, dangle about the lofty ceiling spaces. One of the highest officers of the school pronounced the building a "white elephant." It would seem to be axiomatic that school buildings should not be the result of an effort to produce a veneer of impressive architectural forms, but should be an evolution from within, an outward expression of an inward purpose, and that purpose an educational process.

An especially awkward building is the three-story domestic science building at one of the Virginia schools, square as a box up and down and around, bare as a barn, covered all over with sheets of rusted tin, and fringed at the top with false galvanized iron fritterings. Out of the flat roof shoots a square tower small at the bottom and big at the

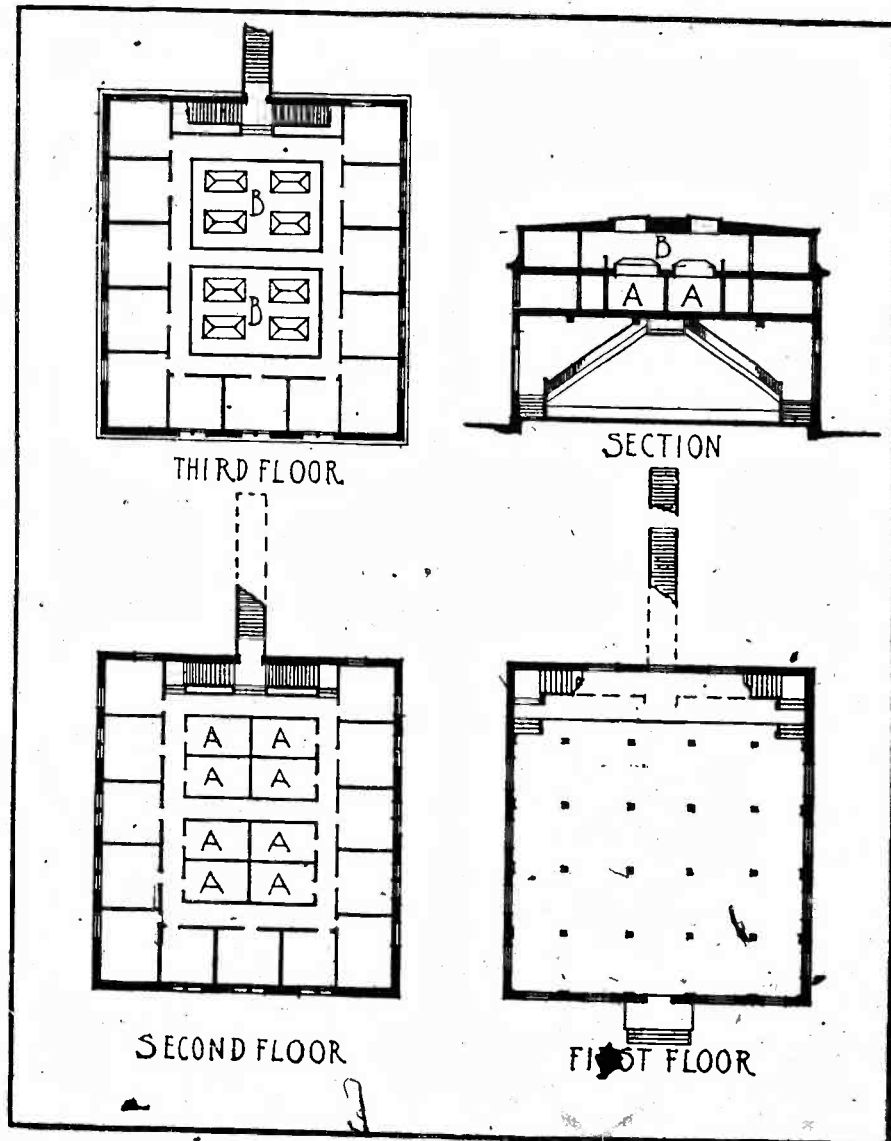
top, bluntly pointed and like a stubbed, squared sky-rocket. Unfortunately the building sits upon a hilltop and proclaims itself aloud to the country-side.

The majority of the institutional buildings, even in the country, have been branded with the characteristics of city buildings, characteristics made necessary by the complex conditions of city life—high land values, high cost of construction, high rents, scarcity of light and air, and crowded living. The influence is most marked on the fundamental requirements—the plan, the expression, light and air, the height, and the size and location of windows. The plans are compact and formal, when the wide, open country and roomy suburb suggest freedom, a spreading out, an opening up, and a somewhat informal arrangement.

The top story of what is perhaps the largest dormitory for girls in the south—at Fisk University—has the windows so high from the floor that the girls when standing can scarcely see out. The windows are small, the walls are painted dark green, and the impression is that of some place of confinement. The boys' dormitory at Bennett College is small in plan, projects five stories into the air, and looks like a city building sitting on flat ground in the country (33A).

The comparatively new chapel and dormitory for girls at another institution is of brick, three stories and basement high, and in the mansard style (34A). The chapel is on the main floor with the dormitories above. It is a notable example of bad planning, or rather no planning, as the stairs and the method of lighting some of the girls' rooms were not devised until after the building was started. No place was left for the stairways, so two flights of open stairs were hung over the platform of the chapel, leading directly from the chapel up to the dormitory. By this arrangement the students are obliged to go through the open chapel to get to their rooms, unless indeed they use the outside wooden stair fire escapes. These start at the second and third floors respectively, run out directly away from the building through space, and land on the ground at some distance from the building. The building is so large and square on the ground that light can not penetrate to the center, and the inside dormitory rooms on the second floor have no windows except skylights through the third floor. On the third floor the inner dark space is unusable, being railed off to protect the glass in the floor over the dark rooms below. Overhead is another set of skylights to light those in the floor below. Such a condition is intolerable and inexcusable and belongs to the dark tenement house days of New York and Chicago. It would be illegal in many States and in all up-to-date cities throughout the country.

The new dormitory for girls at Snow Hill School is a city building located in a remote rural district of the black belt of Alabama, with no habitation in sight except the school. It is four stories high, built of brick, and situated on a prominent hill surrounded by southern pines. The high brick walls with small openings are severe rather than inviting. There is nothing about the building to suggest a country home for girls in a warm climate. The windows are small, the stories higher than necessary, tending to produce the effect of a warehouse or a military building. By reducing the height of the stories the building could have been lowered perhaps 25 per cent, thus reducing the cost, cutting the expense of heat and light, and incidentally making the building more domestic and attractive. The dormitory is one-third larger than present needs call for. This building should have been two or three stories high, certainly not more than three,



AN UNDESIRABLE TYPE OF DORMITORY.

These plans show interior rooms "A" having no outside windows. Space "B" over rooms "A" contains skylights in floor and in ceiling. It is waste space, since it can not be used for other purposes. What little light rooms "A" receive must come through the skylights.

of simple attractive type, like the girls' dormitory at Claflin University (Pl. 34B); and even if built of wood could have been made as durable as the early, colonial homes. This would have cost much less, if thoroughly built would last as long as any growing school could need, and would be more homelike and more convenient; there would be fewer steps to climb, and it would be safer from fire and easier to replace when the time came.

The day of high institutional buildings in the country has passed, and even when they are built in cities the growing effort is to keep down the height. The new buildings of the Boston Institute of Technology and of Johns Hopkins University are three stories high; the new fireproof buildings of Peabody College in Nashville, for white students, are two stories high, and most of the new public-school buildings of Oakland and many others in California are only one story high. The one-story type shown in Plate 40 is an illustration of a remarkable tendency in the recent development of school buildings. In addition to the low height, most of the plans show these buildings to be but one room deep, with openings on the opposite sides giving cross ventilation, the sunny side being provided with a porch or loggia used as a corridor. These California buildings, it will be noticed, are based on the same principle as to thickness of building, porch, and cross ventilation as the Shanklin School dormitories and the Emerson Normal and Industrial teachers' dormitory.

Every colored school of the larger class has one or more four-story buildings, many of them of wood construction; and what is even more unfortunate, and really inexcusable, there are a large number of new buildings that are four stories high. Among them are the academic building of Utica Institute; the girls' dormitory at Snow Hill Institute, Ala.; the proposed building at Morehouse College; the proposed dormitory for girls at Livingstone College; the boys' dormitory at Virginia Union; the boys' dormitory at Roger Williams University; and the Meharry Medical School building. A half dozen presidents of colleges having buildings four stories high were asked their opinion as to the proper number of stories for school buildings. Four gave three stories as a good height and two preferred two or three stories. Probably the most authoritative opinion would give one or two stories as the best height—one for small schools and two for large institutions, where plenty of land is available. The low buildings are safer in fire or panic, having fewer stairs to climb; they eliminate noise overhead, and give greater privacy and a more intimate relation with the natural surroundings.

The administration and class buildings at Claflin College and the academic building at Browning Industrial Home for Girls, Camden, S. C., are especially well adapted to their purposes. The Claflin building is an attractive example of the brick Colonial style with white trimmings; it is two stories high, well constructed, and conveniently planned; it has a durable slate roof, and the rooms and halls are light. It may well serve as a type of brick building to be followed under similar conditions.

All too frequently there is a noticeable lack of a sense of proportion between the needs of an institution in the way of buildings and the institution's income and educational circumstances, as well as a lack of a sense of growth between the character of some big, new building and the needs and usefulness of the old ones. Some large structure is projected to provide for various branches of institutional activity, and is planned to be considerably beyond present needs; for instance, the girls' dormitory of Snow Hill (Pl. 33B) and the academic building, Utica Institute (Pl. 37B), while the existing buildings

may be of the simplest wooden type, well separated, and providing, perhaps inadequately, for the different institutional activities. When the time comes to build, doubtless a better plan would be to keep the activities separate, as in the old buildings, by erecting smaller, lower frame buildings of the most durable construction and sufficient for present needs, instead of large, high, expensive masonry buildings, uninviting and inappropriate institutionally, and inconsistent financially. There are a number of schools where it would be better policy to inaugurate general repairs rather than to undertake the construction of large, expensive, new buildings.

The academic building of the Browning Industrial Home for Girls is especially commendable; about every consideration that goes to produce a well-coordinated, convenient, inexpensive, and attractive building has been given to the development of this model classroom building (Pl. 36). The building is of frame construction, of the ideal height—two stories—designed in the Colonial style; painted white, conveniently planned, and durably constructed from architects' plans. It is cheerful and inviting inside and out, is a type not expensive to build, is provided with generous, well-lighted stairs and halls, and is not too high. The rooms are well lighted by ample windows properly placed, and running nearly to the ceiling. The lighting of the corner rooms might have been improved; light on two sides of a classroom is, generally speaking, no longer considered ideal. This building is one of the few seen in the South in which interior settlement has been guarded against by proper construction, and as a result the cracking of plaster is negligible. This favorable condition is really the result, no doubt, of the use of good, hard plaster, so rarely seen elsewhere. The building is placed close to the ground and provides no basement other than that needed for storage and the heating plant.

In the case of a new dormitory for girls at Paine College, Augusta, Ga., the basement floor was placed level with the surrounding ground; earth was then filled back around the foundations several feet high; small windows were provided through the masonry walls above the new earth, and the main entrance to the building lifted by a long flight of stairs to the so-called main floor—a full story above the natural ground level. The basement was then used for academic and dining purposes. The general use of basement space is another instance of the impress of city influence, and its use is often presented as a sign of thrift in the utilization of waste space. The best practice eliminates entirely for school purposes the use of the basement, in the country as well as in the city, unless the circumstances are unusually favorable to such use, as is sometimes the case—on sloping land, etc. The great majority of colored school buildings of any importance have basements which usually project well above the ground. The main entrance is generally at the top of a long, steep flight of outside stairs leading up to the front porch, and the basement is reached only from the main floor by going downstairs again. A much truer solution is to plan the main entrance near the ground level, to go up to the main floor inside the building, and if a basement is necessary, to go down to it from the ground level entrance.

The designing and planning of most of the buildings of recent date examined was done either by professional architects or by manual-training teachers. A comparison of the costs shows that those constructed from homemade plans cost no less, in some instances materially more; in at least one instance the buildings cost twice as much

as they would have cost had they been planned and supervised by men of professional training and experience. The homemade plans ran to high buildings, high ceilings, awkward stair arrangement, waste space, small windows low from the ceiling, dark halls, inadequate fire protection, an austere or formal appearance; and generally the unscientific design and bad construction have resulted in settlement, cracks, and other serious defects.

The basic error of most of the old buildings, and of many of the new ones built from homemade plans, is the endeavor to include too many institutional activities under one roof. When this is done each department is generally obliged to sacrifice something to the combination. The so-called girls' dormitory of Roger Williams University at Nashville is comparatively new and fairly typical of most of the high mansard buildings in which divergent functions are crowded under one roof:

Basement.....	Dining room and service.
First floor.....	Administration and chapel.
Second floor.....	Classrooms.
Third floor.....	Girls' dormitory.
Fourth floor.....	Physical exercises.

It has become a generally accepted principle that in most cases where conditions of space and cost permit the ideal plan is one in which each department of the school is separately housed. Good illustrations of this principle are found at Claflin University, Voorhees School, Tuskegee Institute, and Virginia Union University, where dining halls and other departments are housed in separate buildings. This general rule, however, does not mean that the separate housing of the various departments is always advisable. Oftentimes, especially in the design of schools of medium size, on small grounds, more real privacy and greater economy of construction and operation can be secured by collecting the different departments under one roof, in separate wings of a single building.

The problem of natural lighting for schools has been worked out so carefully in the past few years that it is unfortunate when new buildings have their window areas arranged according to the old custom. About half of the newer and practically all of the older academic buildings have their windows too far below the ceiling—in one instance as low as 4 feet (Agricultural and Mechanical College, Orangeburg, S. C.). The corner classrooms in every case receive light from two directions instead of one, as the best practice now pretty generally requires. In one of the otherwise most satisfactory buildings visited the light was admitted on one side and one end, the end light falling directly in the faces of the pupils. In four schools the light came from the right when it could have been from the left quite as easily.

The questions of wall color, amount of blackboard space, height and size of rooms, arrangement of roller shades, and other minor but important details are treated practically at random, and with a disregard for the recent great advancement in classroom design. It is an interesting commentary that, so far as natural light is concerned, the classrooms in the new buildings of the country public schools for Negroes, under State supervision, show a great improvement over those in the larger and more advanced schools for Negroes.

CONSTRUCTION AND STUDENT LABOR.

Student labor, while often highly desirable as a branch of instruction, usually results in rather unsatisfactory buildings. The term student labor has become an idiom in the phraseology of colored schools. Students work for the school both for pay and for the value of the instruction obtained from the work performed. Among the trade and agricultural schools the practice is very common. The object of student labor is threefold: To enable the students to earn their own way, in part; to provide a practical method of learning the trades; and at the same time to supply the needs of the schools in the form of buildings and of agricultural and mechanical equipment. It is very generally taken for granted that student labor should be used in every possible case; although, judging from actual results, it is evident that such labor is often used without sufficiently weighing the inexperience of the available laborers, and the consequent high cost of the work, as compared with that done by trained and experienced mechanics.

As a rule, buildings constructed by student labor are more expensive and less substantial than buildings constructed by skilled labor. Student labor so lowers the standards of construction as to produce buildings less durable, less useful, and in some cases less safe. Frequently the excess cost of building by student labor is greater than the cost of giving the same trade instruction by some other method. As a method of instruction it is highly desirable, and a very direct and practical method, when the resulting structures are satisfactory and when the cost is not excessive; that is, when the cost to build using student labor is not greater than the cost to produce by skilled labor plus the cost of equivalent manual instruction given in some other way.

The difficulty of properly balancing the loss or excess cost of student labor against the gain in instructional value is due to the fact that such a comparison brings in two different domains of thought and activity. It is a discussion of the educational value of trade instruction gained by the erection of buildings by students versus the durability, efficiency, fitness to purpose, and cost of buildings produced by such labor. The value of one is for educators to determine; the value of the other is for builders or architects to ascertain.

Hampton Institute has solved the problem of student labor in a workable and profitable manner. Hampton student-labor buildings apparently cost no more than buildings built by skilled labor under outside contractors, and they are practically as good. At this school, therefore, the trade instructional value gained from actual building operations is a net gain. With Hampton's notably successful example of the use of student labor accessible to all, it would appear that means could be devised by which the system in operation there could be made to apply to other schools where student labor is used, and produce a greater degree of success than is now achieved. The benefits accruing from student labor, if economically adjusted, are so valuable and so vital that Hampton's solution of the problem should be more widely studied by institutions interested in the subject.

A clear example of the failings of student labor working from home-made plans is the construction of an academic building recently completed by a large Southern school. The building is 60 feet by 100 feet on the ground and three stories high, with the inevitable basement. It is constructed of home-made concrete blocks, creditable to the initiative and ingenuity of the designer, but monotonous and repelling in color and general

appearance. The building is a story too high, and has but one stair hall and no fire escape or fire-extinguishing devices. The windows are not grouped so as to afford left-hand light only, and are too far from the ceiling for good distribution of light. The construction is faulty, promising considerable settlement; some of the timbers supporting the roof construction are already bending, and additional posts have been put in the basement. The timber was sawed from the log and the logs were cut from the standing timber by the students. The finishing lumber was bought. The laths were home-made, some of them an inch thick; they required twice as much plaster as otherwise necessary, thus making a double expense and producing a surface predisposed to crack and fall off. The sidewalls were plastered by the students, the ceilings being constructed of ceiling boards. The wall was so uneven that the baseboard stood an inch away at places, leaving space for dust and vermin. It is estimated that this building cost nearly twice as much as it should. The cost was four times as much, relatively, as the substantial, fire-protected buildings of Lane College, which were built by skilled mechanics.

Student labor to be economical should have more supervision than skilled labor, and, roughly speaking, should have an admixture of 25 per cent of outside skilled labor, the practice followed at Claflin University. The skilled labor is a constant object lesson as to method, as well as a stimulus to better work. Student labor is most apt at blacksmithing, brickwork, painting, and plumbing, and least proficient in plastering and fine carpentry. For the most part, plaster work should not be undertaken by students. At one institution the plastering was so badly done that in two buildings the plaster doubtless will have to be taken down and replaced at a cost of several thousand dollars.

The Young Men's Christian Association Building at Hampton Institute (Pl. 37A) and the chapel at Berea College, Kentucky,¹ are entirely satisfactory and very commendable buildings. They were designed by architects and constructed by students. The brickwork is well laid, the carpentry carefully done, and the paint well applied. In fact, these buildings are so skillfully done that it is difficult to discover that they were not done by skilled labor.

There is a very general and highly gratifying tendency to use the materials that are close at hand and to make finished materials from natural raw materials. At least two of the rural schools make their own brick from near-by clay beds, and in some instances sell enough to the general trade to keep the brick-yard running more or less regularly. A small number of the rural schools have sufficient sawmill machinery to supply their own timber and rough lumber from logs cut from the nearby woods by students. The use in a concrete building of oyster shells, replacing gravel or broken stone, has been mentioned, as well as the manufacture of concrete blocks for a large building. In these cases bricks could not be made, as there are no clay beds in the vicinity. Virginia Union University has used granite from a near-by quarry. The university had several important buildings to construct and, in effect, leased an idle quarry under a favorable arrangement, quarrying all its own granite. This method is in contrast with that used by Immanuel Lutheran College, where the granite was brought from a distance, necessarily at considerable expense. Tuskegee manufactures its own water paints from local earths.

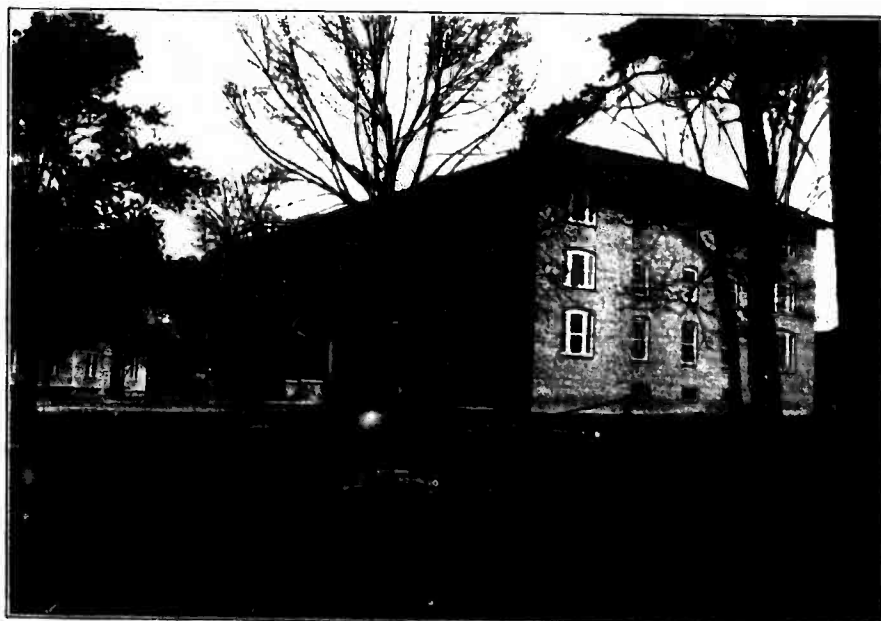
The most common defects of construction are those relating to stability and durability, and to the misuse or inverted use of materials of construction. The settling of

¹ For white students.



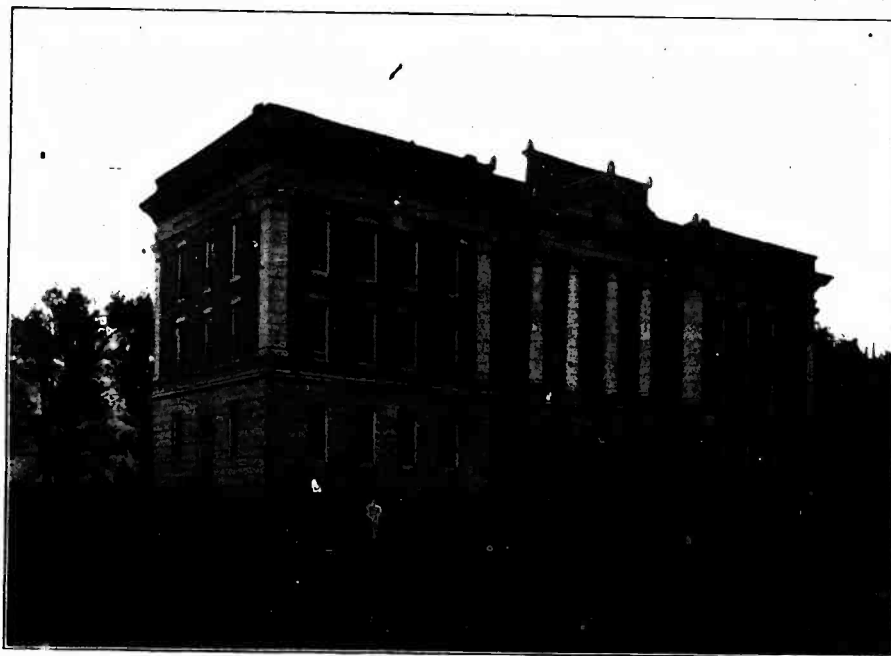
A. WALKER BAPTIST INSTITUTE, AUGUSTA, GA.

The girls' dormitory is the mansard building at the left.



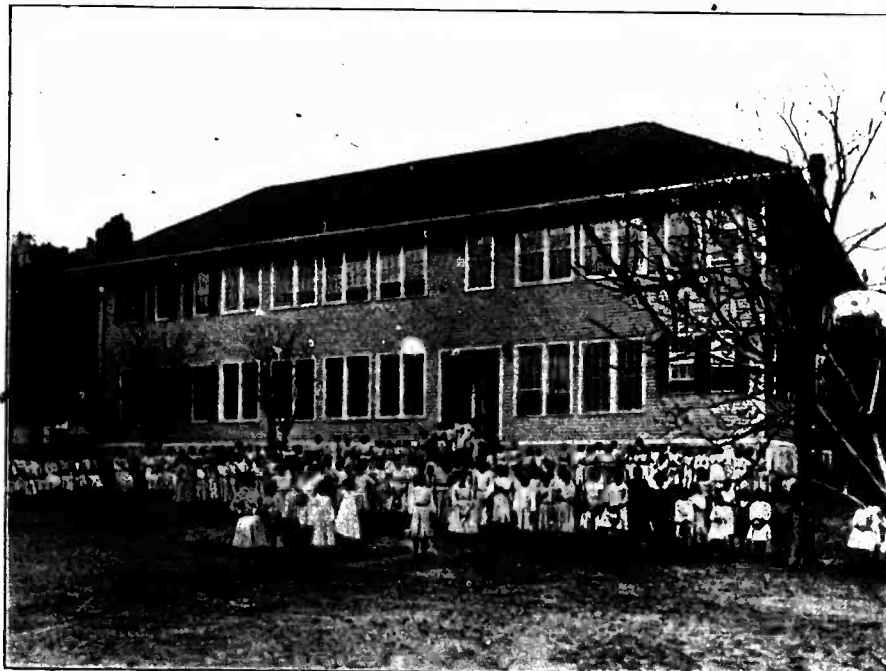
B. GIRLS' DORMITORY, CLAFLIN UNIVERSITY.

A simple, substantial type of girls' dormitory. Built partly with students' labor.



A. LANE COLLEGE, JACKSON, TENN

A good brick and terra-cotta building; cost, \$27,000. Well planned and substantially built.



B. MONTGOMERY INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, MONTGOMERY, ALA. .

One of the best types of frame construction. Low, simple, and economical, affording abundance of light.

the interior of buildings and the consequent evils—unevenness of floors, cracks between the floor and the baseboard, and racking of woodwork, and the cracking of plaster—were found so common as to direct attention to a search for the cause. So far as was observed, the construction was faulty in one essential in all but two cases. This fault is due to the failure to realize that wood shrinks across the grain but not lengthwise. In constructing the framework of a wooden building so as to prevent unequal settlement with its train of troubles, the outside walls and the inside partitions must have the same amount, always as little as possible, of cross-grain wood at the floors and ceilings in the form of horizontal timber. The interior partitions of masonry buildings must have practically no cross-grain wood to produce shrinkage. If the partitions of a frame or masonry building have materially more cross-grain wood than the outside walls, in time the partitions will shrink while the outside walls will stand, and the results will be as above described. Interior settlement not due to faulty foundations but to inexperience in framing is easily prevented and at a negligible expense.

Durability is largely affected by the tightness of the buildings against the elements and the strength of the original members of construction. Though the frame academic building of Snow Hill Normal and Industrial School has only been built a short time, it is so frail that its strength is in question and its life limited. It would have been much better to build a smaller and more durable structure, which would still have been large enough for present needs, would have cost no more, and would have lasted almost indefinitely.

The flooring used, with but few exceptions, has been the ordinary domestic pine that shows wavy graining. It is, perhaps, serviceable enough where the wear is moderate, but its use in public places is false economy. The ordinary pine floors wear down unevenly in a short time, the harder boards outlasting the softer, while the exposed nails prevent the wood from wearing down around them, thus producing a bumpy floor, the effect of which immediately lowers the standard of an otherwise orderly building. Edge-grain flooring, the kind that shows very fine straight lines of grain, comes from the same log as the grainy kind, costs a little more, lasts a great deal longer, and is decidedly more economical to use. This kind of flooring should be employed in corridors and public rooms, while the softer kind might be used in dormitory rooms, administration offices, and other places where there is less wear. In one building edge-grain pine had been used for 15 years and showed no serious wear except at the main entrance. Inasmuch as it is a home product with most schools and adds so much to orderliness and durability, it is a subject for note that it is so rarely used.

COST OF BUILDINGS.

The conditions of the investigation did not permit of an extensive or detailed study of the important subject of cost, particularly the relations of cost to results obtained. An authoritative opinion would have to be based on a working knowledge of local building conditions, with particular attention to the points wherein these differ from the normal. The information collected in the field and the costs calculated therefrom however, show a few things very clearly. The value of 18 buildings of varying kinds, and belonging to different institutions in several States, was inquired into and the cost, as given and the value as estimated were found to coincide approximately in a reason-

able number of cases. This degree of approximation of the amount of building received to the amount of money expended is encouraging, and indicates that in most cases there is a sincerity of effort to transform money into buildings.

The estimated values of buildings have not been fully discounted by minor errors, inaccuracies, and inconsistencies, that do not materially impair the life or the usefulness of the buildings, even though such defects would in the market of supply and demand materially lower the values as estimated. This method of valuation, if not technically accurate, because it takes into account the intention, the effort, and the circumstances, is at least one that has respect for the human element. In other words, the estimates represent values of the buildings for the particular purpose in view, even though the buildings may be imperfect.

Reference to the following table will show the degree of uniformity of the given cost of any particular building as compared with its estimated value. The table also shows the estimated cost per cubic unit of the different buildings. This is for the purpose of making a relative comparison of the cost of any one building with that of any other and is made necessary by differences in size and in character. For instance, the given cost of the academic building of one institution is nearly twice that of the estimated actual value, while the given cost of the academic building of another (Lane College) is less than one-half of the estimated value. It would be interesting and doubtless instructive to give further study to these two buildings to find out how in the one instance a building cost one-half what might be expected, and in the other it cost twice what might be expected.

The extraordinary difference in relative cost between these two buildings is still further increased by the difference in the character of the buildings. The academic building of Lane College was constructed by skilled labor from architects' plans. The outside walls are of brick, trimmed with terra cotta; the main partitions are of masonry; settlement is provided against; the plaster work and the carpentry are good; and the building as a whole, inside and out, has an expression and an atmosphere emblematic of its uses. The academic building at the other institution was constructed by student labor from plans made by a manual-training teacher. The outside walls are of concrete blocks; the partitions are of wood; settlement is not provided against; the plaster work and the carpentry are manifestly the work of inexperienced eyes and hands; while the building as a whole, as compared with the Lane building, is uninviting and crude, however commendable it may be when account is taken of the struggle that apparently was necessary to produce it.

These important differences in the character of the two buildings still further widen the breach between the costs, and if taken into the account they would increase the relative cost of the first building mentioned to five times that of the Lane building. If the cost of the Lane building were more than normal and the cost of the other building less, the discrepancy would be more easily explicable. As the costs stand, it is difficult to assign causes for them except speculative ones. Either the estimated values or the given costs are incorrect, or else the building in question at the one institution, for some unknown reason, cost twice as much as it should, and the building in question at the other cost one-half as much as it should. In the case of the former the excessive cost may have been due to unskilled plans, inexperienced supervision, student labor, indiscriminate bookkeeping, or to an unfortunate use of the building funds. In the case of

Lane the extremely low cost may have been due to highly economical plans, experienced supervision, skilled labor, or possibly to the omission from the stated cost of certain parts of the equipment of the building, such as heating, plumbing, and electric work. Details such as these are often not included in the general contract, and by inadvertence may have been omitted from the total reported cost; or certain work may have been donated and therefore not appear. Since such omissions may be the result only of carelessness in making up, or giving out figures, it is obviously important to note that such misleading statements indicate laxity or incompetence, which should be corrected. At all events, the buildings of Lane College are good and substantial and may well be studied as to completeness as well as to cost.

COST OF CERTAIN TYPICAL BUILDINGS.

Grammar school for white people.

Kirkwood, Mo. (Pl. 39B); corridors, stairs, boiler room, fuel room fireproof and the only one in this list so built; finished brick basement; terra-cotta trimmings; roof of slate, floors of hard maple, inside finish of oak

Snow Hill School.

Girls' dormitory (Pl. 33B); new, three stories, brick

Lane College. Pl. 35A

Academic building; brick and terra cotta, three stories, fire walls of brick

Girls' hall; three stories, brick

Boys' hall; three stories, brick

Okolona School.

Academic building; four stories, brick

Meharry Hospital.

Three stories, brick fire walls

Roger Williams.

Academic building; four stories, brick

Boys' dormitory; new, three stories, brick

Paine College.

Girls' dormitory; new, three stories, brick

Voorhees School.

Dining hall; new, one story, brick, mostly open space; no kitchen fittings

Clatsop University.

Girls' dormitory (Pl. 34B); new, three stories, brick

South Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical School.

Girls' dormitory; two stories, brick

Browning Industrial School.

Academic building (Pl. 36); new, two stories, frame

Penn School.

Industrial building; one story, concrete, tile roof

Academic building; two stories, frame

Virginia Union University.

Boys' dormitory; new, four stories, granite

	Cubic units.	Unit value.	Estimated value.	Given cost.
Kirkwood, Mo. (Pl. 39B); corridors, stairs, boiler room, fuel room fireproof and the only one in this list so built; finished brick basement; terra-cotta trimmings; roof of slate, floors of hard maple, inside finish of oak	325,500	\$0.12		\$39,415
Girls' dormitory (Pl. 33B); new, three stories, brick	360,000	.10	\$36,000	45,000
Academic building; brick and terra cotta, three stories, fire walls of brick	646,900	.11	71,000	26,750
Girls' hall; three stories, brick	327,700	.10½	34,500	16,000
Boys' hall; three stories, brick	419,500	.10½	44,000	22,000
Academic building; four stories, brick	248,400	.10½	26,000	40,000
Three stories, brick fire walls	306,000	.12½	38,500	43,000
Academic building; four stories, brick	324,800	.10½	34,000	35,000
Boys' dormitory; new, three stories, brick	228,500	.10½	24,000	23,000 25,000
Girls' dormitory; new, three stories, brick	210,000	.10	21,000	23,500
Dining hall; new, one story, brick, mostly open space; no kitchen fittings	117,900	.8	9,500	7,000
Girls' dormitory (Pl. 34B); new, three stories, brick	331,500	.10½	35,000	32,000
Girls' dormitory; two stories, brick	448,000	.10	45,000	45,000
Academic building (Pl. 36); new, two stories, frame	248,000	.9½	23,500	23,500
Industrial building; one story, concrete, tile roof	114,500	.9½	11,000	12,000 13,000
Academic building; two stories, frame	148,500	.9	13,000	13,000
Boys' dormitory; new, four stories, granite	321,750	.14	45,000	50,000

¹ \$25,000 with fittings.

² About \$25,000 with fittings.

³ Contract.

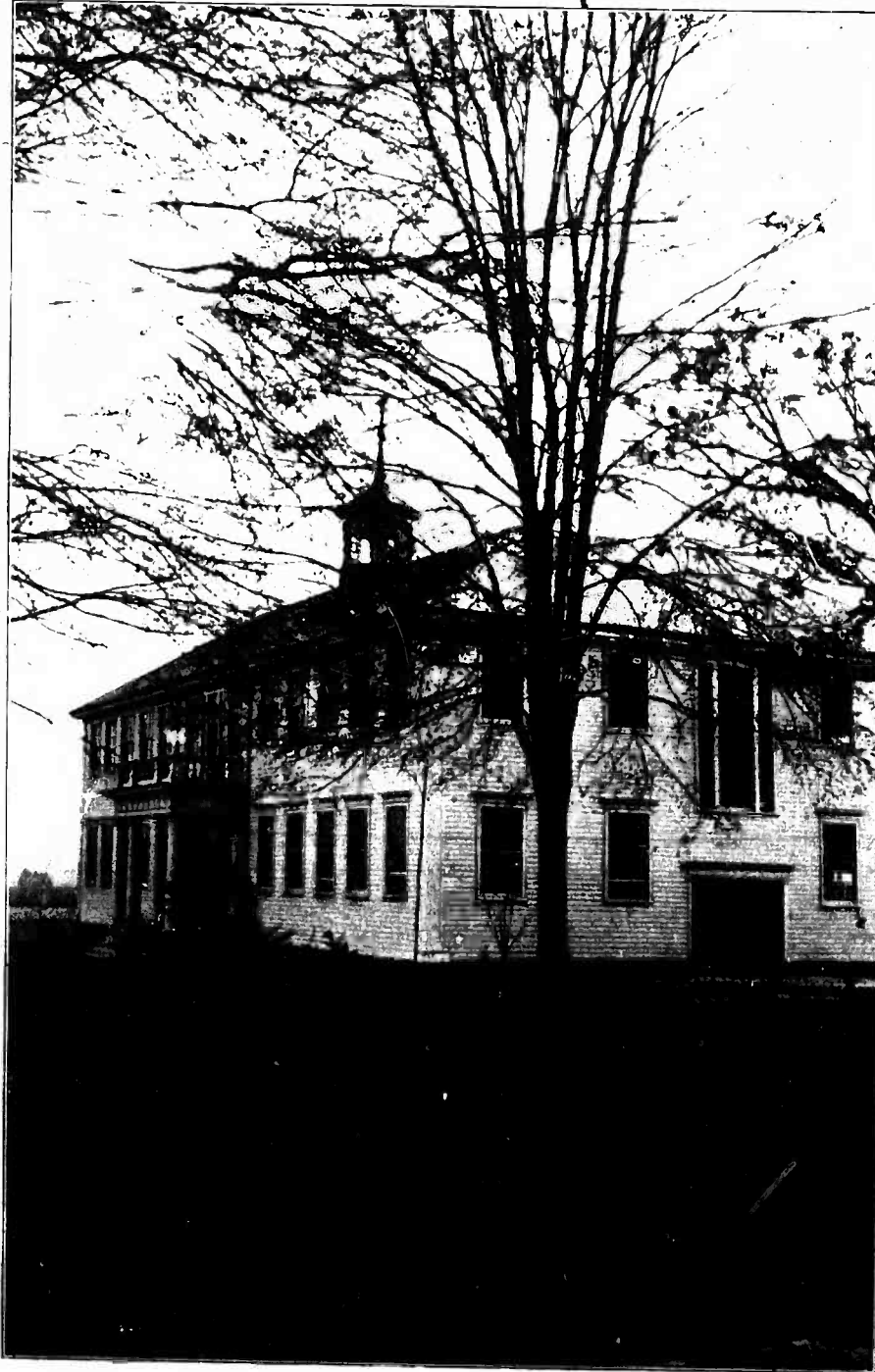
The buildings showing wide variations in cost from the normal, as well as those containing inexcusable defects scarcely attributable to lack of experience, suggest the desirability of adopting a voucher system during the period of building construction. This would prevent most mistakes and make possible an audit of the amounts of the receipts and the expenditures. Although such an audit could not determine whether the funds had been properly or improperly spent, it would tend to prevent collusion, and misappropriation of funds. Nor is it apparent how misdirection of funds can be prevented without some outside help. Here is an obviously good opportunity for educational boards to accomplish a useful purpose, by devising and putting into operation some form of construction superintendence and audit of construction vouchers.

Experienced superintendence would easily eliminate most of the errors of construction previously referred to, and at the same time would largely prevent the unintentional errors as to final cost. Such superintendence, in addition to bettering the construction, would in the long run materially reduce the cost. In addition to the more harmful defects previously mentioned, there are an endless number of minor ones that adequate superintendence would prevent. One of the stone buildings of Storer College, West Virginia, has wooden lintels over the windows. The theological building at Livingstone College has a porch floor built of a concrete slab held up by wooden joists. The wooden joists were too small and too far apart and the concrete slab was weak in itself, so the porch has collapsed. At Tuskegee the ends of the floor joists in a building under construction were built solidly into the brick wall, allowing no air space to prevent decay. Work like this would be illegal in most cities, and it is such defects as these, as well as others more serious, that experienced supervision would prevent. To be sure, superintendence can not take the place of thoroughly considered plans nor of skill on the part of the workmen, but it can undertake to help the mechanics understand the plans and translate them into material form. It would not be surprising to find, if it were determinable, that \$1,000 of every \$10,000 appropriated for building purposes in connection with colored schools is wasted in one way or another. A small fraction of this loss would provide continuous supervision during the entire construction period, and a day's consulting opinion, if the plans were homemade, would add greatly to the economy, the convenience, the durability, and the attractiveness of the finished buildings.

SANITATION.

The problems of sanitation that especially attracted attention were sewage and garbage disposal, water supply, ventilation, and provisions against vermin. With certain exceptions, it can be said that institutions having sewer connection have acceptable toilet facilities and standard plumbing fixtures. At one of the best-known institutions in the South, the toilets in one of the dormitories had neither daylight nor ventilation. In general, schools located within cities have plumbing, while those in the country have privies; and as might be expected, the character of the privies is little better than the term usually implies. About one-third of the schools visited have outside privies built of wood; the remainder have standard plumbing fixtures within the building, occasionally including shower baths for boys.

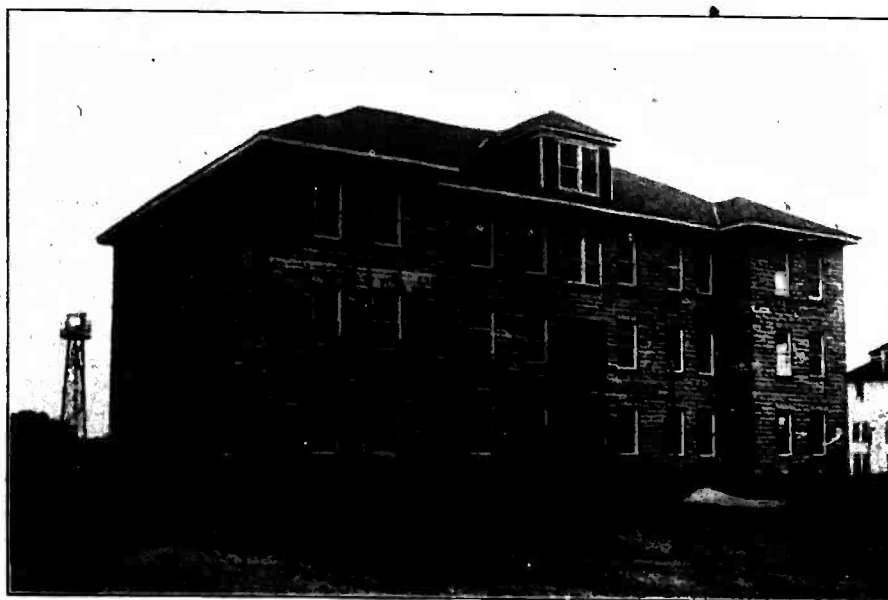
If it were possible to assume careful use of the privies by the students and daily care by the authorities, they could, perhaps, as a matter of present necessity, be accepted



ACADEMIC BUILDING, BROWNING INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.



A. YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION BUILDING AT HAMPTON INSTITUTE.



B. MAIN BUILDING, UTICA NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, UTICA, MISS.

as temporary expedients; but the observations showed conclusively that they are not carefully used or properly cared for. There was but one masonry privy seen and but two privies that received daily attention. The majority were sufficiently removed, although at two large institutions they were inexcusably near dormitories when they could easily have been placed farther away. In fact, the very necessity that they be located at a distance is an argument against them, and the evils transmitted from them by flies, air, water, and otherwise, are too well known to need further reference. The common repugnance to the subject should be sufficient to condemn them, at least in connection with any large school community. In the absence of careful use and daily attention the only solution, where sewer connections are not available, is the expensive one of using standard porcelain fixtures with a septic tank, unless a sanitary privy of masonry, lined with nonabsorbent materials and located over a septic tank, can be devised. Whether lavatories with running water are provided in batteries in a common wash room, or whether bowls and pitchers filled from an outside pump are used, are primarily questions of cost and convenience rather than of sanitation. If running water is conveniently located on each floor, the washbowl and pitcher may well continue to serve their ancient purposes. Ample and inviting facilities for bathing, however simple, should be provided. At Voorhees School showers for girls were improvised, the sprays apparently made of sheet metal punched full of holes, and the tubs underneath made of barrels sawed in two.

The character of the water supply, like that of the plumbing, largely depends on the location of the school, whether in the country or within the city. The country schools depend on wells, dug or driven, the smaller schools having dug wells and the larger ones driven wells. The driven wells are, or should be, free from surface contamination; the dug wells may be or may not be. In two cases the latter were found too close to the school buildings, while a third, at a school of 500 students, was lined with brick and built like a cistern, and was only a few feet from and below a sluggish stream obviously unfit for domestic use. The water in the cistern was cloudy, and the back of the well curb had been used as an outdoor privy. Some time ago the school had an epidemic, since which time the water in this cistern has not been used for drinking. Bubbling drinking fountains have been introduced at Penn School and at Haines Normal and Industrial School, and possibly at others.

Contrary to what might popularly be expected, the ventilation by means of doors, transoms, and windows is generally excellent. To be sure, this is a matter of discipline rather than of construction, except in one of the dormitories at Hampton Institute, where the plan of entirely omitting the transoms was noted, and in the girls' dormitory at Claflin University, where the device was seen of replacing the transoms by large slats which can not be closed. This seems an excellent provision. There was scarcely a living room or a classroom visited that did not have some windows or transoms open, and that did not seem to have good air. Most of the clothes-closet doorways were hung with short curtains, an opening being left at the top or bottom. There was every evidence that some one had preached well the gospel of fresh air.

It is quite possible to devise frame construction so that it will be at least vermin-resisting if not vermin-proof. To provide against bugs and insects, the first essential is to design the frame against shrinkage in the manner previously referred to; the second

is to use dry timber and lumber; and the third is to make the carpentry and plaster joints so tight that the paint or varnish will fill them. The more plaster is used, and the fewer ceiling boards there are, the better for tightness; and the plastering should completely cover the surface behind baseboards and door and window casings. Mice and rats are readily excluded by closing all vertical openings in the partitions at each floor. This should be done in any event as a measure of fire protection. Such openings can be closed with tin, masonry, or pieces of the uprights that support the partitions. This precaution, as well as those mentioned above, must be attended to during construction, although it is often possible to close the vertical openings in the basement and in the attic later, and if well done, these simple and inexpensive expedients will prevent most of the trouble. A boy at one of the large institutions with about 450 students was asked if there were rats in the dormitory. "O, yes, sir, terrible," he said, "that's what started the last fire we had," meaning that the rats gnawed the matches used to light the students' oil lamps.

MECHANICAL PLANTS.

There is no uniformity in principle among the Negro schools in relation to the installation of central or isolated mechanical plants for the manufacture of heat, light, and power. There could be no uniformity in practice, because of the almost infinite variation in the conditions and requirements of the different schools. The question of the installation of a central mechanical plant is highly technical and its solution in every case requires the broadest business judgment on the part of those shaping the aims of the institution, working in conjunction with expert mechanical skill and experience in the installation of similar central plants, particularly plants for institutions of learning. The intricacies of the problem are so great and the results at best so uncertain that any other procedure is unwise and very likely to result in a plant that will produce an annual deficit, if indeed it does not fail to accomplish its intended purpose. Such plants should be undertaken with the greatest caution, particularly as there is a tendency to consider them a boon of economy.

Some plants now operating are of questionable economy. At one important institution for men, with substantial masonry buildings that are considerably separated, the president stated that it does not pay to run the central plant except at certain times and under certain conditions. The plant was designed for the generation of steam heat, hot water, and light. During the months when heat is not required the expense of manufacturing light exceeds the cost of buying it from the city; and accordingly at such times the plant is shut down, while the depreciation and the interest on the investment run on. It would appear that the problem of an economical plant was not satisfactorily solved here. To make a considerable investment of capital in the construction of an electric light and heating plant, and then buy electric current part of the time while the plant lies idle, suggests a serious mistake in principle or design, or else something radically wrong in the operation of the plant.

At another school of about the same size having its buildings widely separated, a central plant is used for the generation of a small amount of power, heat, and light for one main building and two other frame buildings. There are less than 250 students and the coal consumption amounts to over 60 tons a month. Inquiry showed that the insulation of the longest steam main had failed and, apparently, a considerable proportion

of the steam was being wasted in the underground pipe before reaching the buildings for which the steam was intended. Even had the installation been perfect, however, these buildings were probably situated at too great a distance for economical and satisfactory service. Inasmuch as the neighboring town sells electric light, the solution might be to have a local or isolated heating plant in a fireproof room adjoining the main building or in the basement and to buy the lighting current from the city.

At a school with about 400 students, where nearly all of the buildings are of frame construction, there are three isolated plants, considerable distances apart, generating steam for different purposes. At one plant steam for heating is made, at another electric current for lighting, and at the third high-pressure steam for pumping water. Inasmuch as electric current is so easily transmitted by wire, the generating plant can be placed anywhere upon the grounds, as far as transmission is concerned; and accordingly there appears no reason why at least two, and possibly all three, of these plants should not be combined under one roof. In this institution each plant has an outdoor coal pile, unconfined and wastefully scattered about.

In large institutions, where there are a considerable number of buildings not too widely separated, a central heating plant is likely to be more economical than a number of isolated plants. In fact, the more congested the plan of the institution and the higher the buildings the more favorable are the conditions for the central heating plant; and the farther the institution is removed from city conditions the less likely it is that a central heating plant will be an economical investment and the more likely it is that a number of small isolated plants will better satisfy the requirements. If electric current can be bought locally at reasonable rates for light and power, and if the institution has a small number of well-separated buildings, then separate or isolated low-pressure heating plants for each building or group of buildings promise the most economical solution.

In one academic building visited and in one large new dormitory for girls no provision whatever has been made for heat, either by stoves or otherwise. There are no chimneys or heating plants and no arrangements for installing them. At another institution for girls two large buildings are built fast to each other and each has its own low-pressure, cast-iron boiler, calling for separate coal supplies and separate maintenance when it is perfectly obvious that one enlarged plant would consume less fuel, require but one fuel supply, and take less care to operate and maintain. Straight University has five buildings averaging three stories high and of considerable size—sufficient to accommodate nearly 700 students. The central building has a heating plant; the others are heated by stoves. The buildings are close together on a city lot, and there is every indication that a central heating plant for all the buildings would be an economical investment. On the other hand, Lane College, with an enrollment of 225 students, has a central heating plant for three large buildings as favorably conditioned for a central plant as those of Straight University, yet 200 tons of coal are used during the winter months for heating only. It is more than likely that this high consumption of coal indicates a defect in the plant, possibly too small a boiler rather than a misapplication of the principles determining the installation of central plants.

The ideal condition for the installation of a central heating plant, in addition to the congestion just referred to, is in connection with a central power plant furnishing

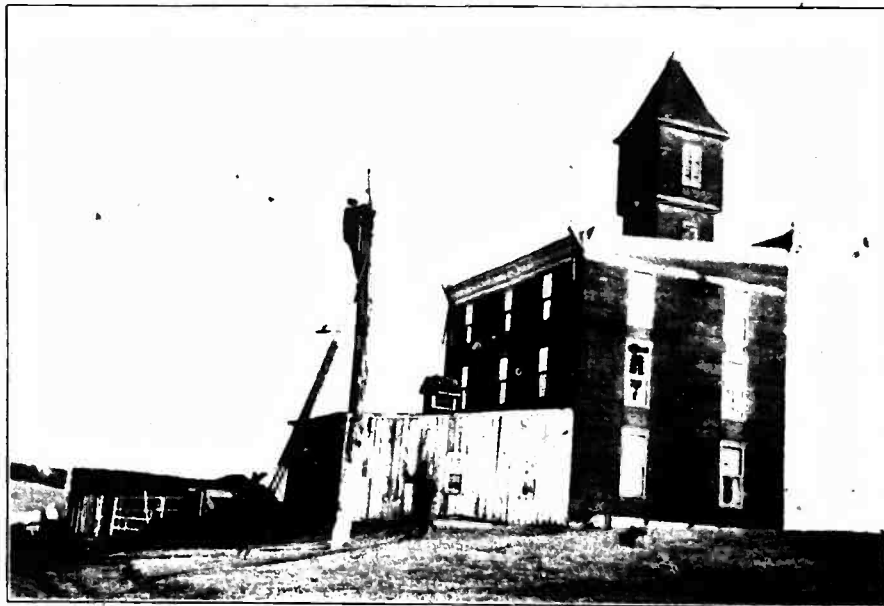
power for machinery or other purposes during the day and electric light during the evening and early morning. By this arrangement the waste steam from the production of power and light is used to produce heat, and its cost is reduced to a minimum; conversely, to the degree that the production of light or power is reduced, to that degree, approximately, will the cost of heating be increased and the normal conditions approached for isolated plants, especially if the buildings are low and widely separated. A considerable number of schools now using stoves have buildings of ample size to call for the installation of isolated plants. In fact, if isolated plants were installed under proper safeguards, the danger from fire would be considerably lessened. It would also be interesting to know whether lighting by some form of home-made gas could not be installed to advantage in a great many of the buildings now using oil lamps.

The location of central power plants should be influenced by the following considerations: Proximity to the school buildings, fuel delivery and ash removal, the question of smoke, and the lowness of the ground required by the heating plant. Smoke can be almost eliminated by special types of automatic stokers, special types of smoke-consuming boilers, or even by the enforcement of careful methods of firing almost any boiler. Many of the first-class cities now have regulations on smoke prevention, mainly relating to the frequency of firing the boilers.

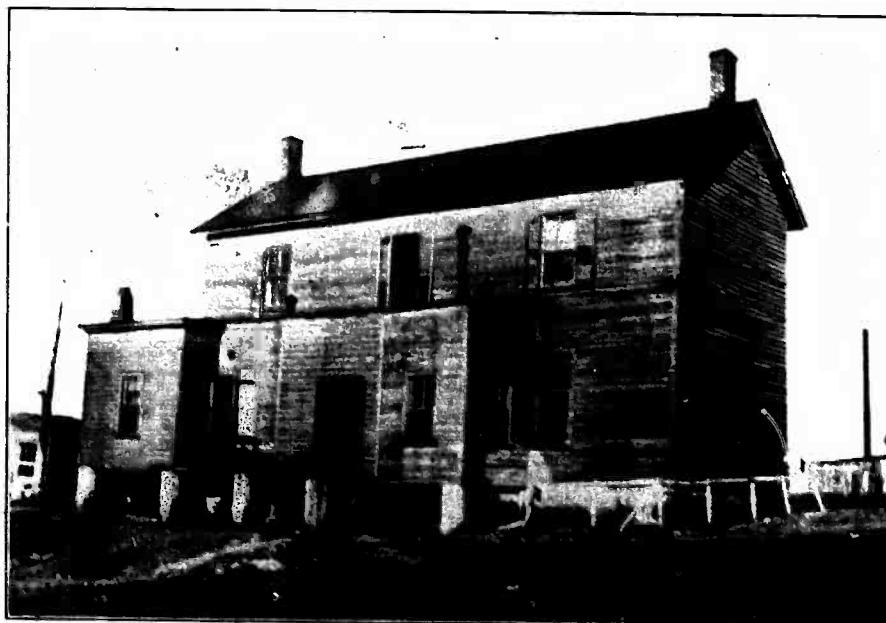
Naturally much of the machinery used for school necessities and for industrial training is after the older patterns and is belt driven rather than motor driven. Many belts dangerous to life and limb were found, and none was seen that was guarded, despite the general present-day tendency to protect all dangerous machinery. Many States require by law that moving machinery likely to cause accident be properly guarded. One of the large State schools, having about 450 students, develops its own heat as well as the power for its industrial machinery. For some reason not apparent this school bought an electric motor-driven fan for the forges in the blacksmith shop and paid monthly bills to the neighboring city for electric current to run the fan, when only a few feet off a machinery shaft was spinning away that might just as well have been belted to the fan, thus saving the original investment of the motor and the monthly current bills. Tuskegee has 25 isolated engines for various purposes scattered over the school and farm. In all probability it would prove cheaper to replace these engines with the various boilers or long steam mains by electric motors supplied with current from the central plant now being erected. Whether this central plant, costing \$250,000, will justify itself the future will soon reveal. The buildings are so scattered and the interest on the investment so great as to make the outcome of the undertaking of exceptional interest.

FIRE, EGRESS, AND INSURANCE.

Probably the neglect to guard against the destruction of life and property by fire is the most common and the most dangerous defect in connection with colored schools. This sort of neglect is a national weakness. The American people destroy by fire half the equivalent of the value of buildings erected each year and eight times as much per capita as the European peoples; and undoubtedly fire hazards of the colored schools must be considerably above the average American hazard for buildings of all uses. Schools, together with other places of habitation and assembly, should, of all buildings, be reasonably safe against fire. The indifference to fire appears in the absence of precau-



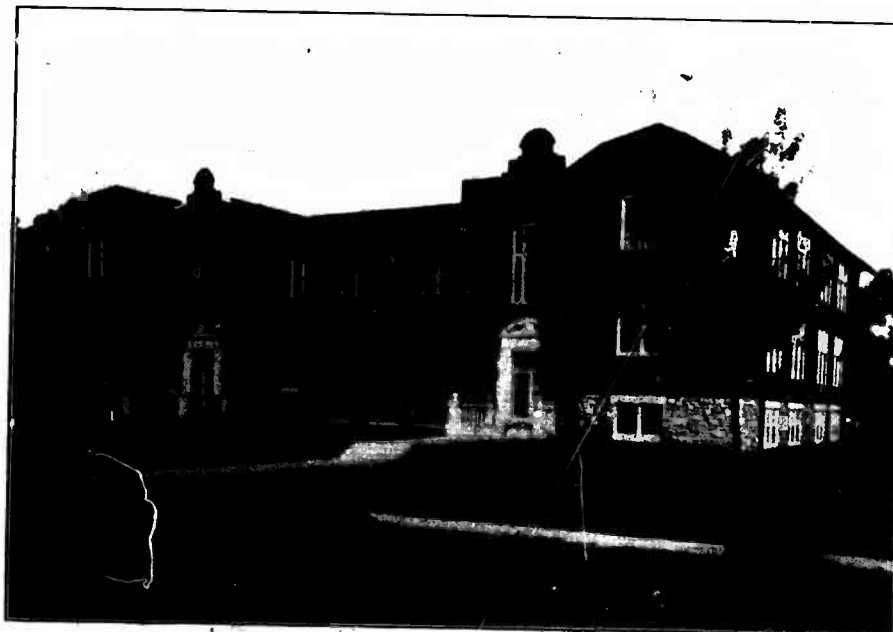
A. DOMESTIC SCIENCE BUILDING, ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, LAWRENCEVILLE, VA.



B. HOSPITAL BUILDING, ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL.



A. ONE OF THE MAIN BUILDINGS, BERRY SCHOOL FOR GIRLS (WHITE), MOUNT BERRY, GA.
This log building exemplifies the satisfactory results obtained by the use of local materials.



B. GRAMMAR SCHOOL FOR WHITE PUPILS, KIRKWOOD, MO.
An excellent general model. Attractive and semidomestic, rather than austere and institutional.

tionary means to prevent fire and the lack of means to put it out and to save life. A very small minority of the buildings are properly protected against fire. Consider a cheaply built, four-story, wooden dormitory full of girl students. Each floor, including the basement, has a stove; each room has a lamp and matches; the ceilings are of wood, not plaster; there is but one stairway, and that built of wood in the center of the building and not inclosed; and the roof is of shingles, penetrated by many chimneys. There is no fire escape, fire ladder, or rope, no fire hose, no fire extinguishers, no fire buckets, no fire gongs, and no fire drills. If a fire started on the ground floor near the stairs, every student in the upper stories would be trapped, and the only hope of escape would be by jumping from the windows or by chance ladders that might be brought to the building. The boys' dormitory at another institution has five stories in use, in addition to the basement. One story is used for an 'assembly' hall, another for classrooms, and the upper ones as dormitories. This is an old frame building, with side-walls and ceiling of boards, and is heated by stoves and lighted by lamps, yet it has only one stairway built of wood in an open stair well. There are no fire escapes other than ropes to slide down. Fire buckets and hand grenades are provided, but there are no fire gongs, fire hose, fire ladders, fire escapes, or fire drills. The building is criminally dangerous and would be illegal in any city.

Generally speaking, fireproof buildings are too expensive to be feasible for colored schools—only one was noted among the several hundred buildings of 40 institutions—and, indeed, while they are desirable, they are not necessary to a reasonable degree of safety if proper precautions are taken and if good construction is adopted. The buildings should not be too high; not more than two stories if of wood, and not more than three stories if of masonry and wood. The boys' frame dormitory at the South Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical College is an example of a frame building entirely too big and too high, being large on the ground and four stories high, with a wooden tower seven or eight stories high; while the boys' dormitory at Bennett College, which stands in the open country, is unnecessarily high and urban even for a brick building (Pl. 33A). If the masonry buildings are large on the ground, they should have an occasional cross partition of brick with fire doors to act as fire stops. Such brick partitions, but without fire doors, were noted only at Scotia Seminary, Concord, N. C., and in the academic buildings of Lane College. Fire doors were noticed in but one building of all those visited. Frame buildings and the interior partitions of masonry buildings can be greatly protected by filling in the air space within the partition, at each floor and ceiling level, including the basement and attic floor levels, with mineral wool or some other fireproof material.

Of necessity many country schools, big and little, are heated by stoves and lighted by lamps. Stoves should have the fuel opening at the top, and not at the side, where the fuel may roll out. Ample sheet metal for floor protection is desirable. Most of the floor guards are just large enough to receive the stove legs and leave but little sheet metal exposed beyond the stove. The girls' dormitory at Utica has stoves in the halls and none in the rooms, the doors and transoms being left open to admit heat. Besides affording good ventilation, this method greatly reduces the fire risk. Cracks caused by settlement or defective masonry in unlined brick chimneys are the cause of a considerable percentage of all fires. If flue lining can not be afforded, the inside of the chimney

should be carefully plastered when the chimney is built. Brick chimneys should be regularly inspected for defects. Isolated plants generating heat and located in basements or in one-story annexes should be inclosed within fireproof walls or partitions and provided with fire doors and windows, and, if practicable, protected by a sprinkler system. This system is the most efficient automatic fire extinguisher known. Ninety-five per cent of the fires started within its range are put out by it. Probably half of the schools visited have isolated heating plants and not one of them has a sprinkler system or a fire-proofed or fire-resisting boiler room. On the contrary, most of the boiler rooms are dangerous. At Fisk University, Livingstone College, Utica Institute, Haines School, Browning Industrial School, Hartshorn College, Paine College, and others, the underside of the woodwork of the floor over the boilers is unprotected even by plaster. At Paine College attention was called to the fact that the smoke-pipe had opened noticeably in two places, and as the woodwork immediately above it was unprotected, it would be only reasonable to expect a fire at any time. This boiler is under a four-story building.

Of the various means of heading off incipient fires good hand grenades are perhaps the best. The fire marshal of an important city recently stated that the old-fashioned, round-bottomed fire pail is the most economical and one of the best fire extinguishers for small buildings. Everybody knows what it is for, and everybody knows how to use it. The inside fire hose with its standpipe supply is an efficient fire-fighting device that is in use at Tuskegee and in the academic building of Penn School, South Carolina—one of the best protected frame school buildings visited, having hand grenades and hand buckets as well. Stairs, fire escapes, gongs, and drills are considered good aids in case of fire. The provision of two ways of escape, in opposite directions, is a well-recognized principle, and probably the most important one in planning egress in case of fire, as well as panic; and panic, be it said, is the cause of as much loss of life as fire. Most of the buildings are inadequately provided with these means of safe egress. Gradually the wise and safe practice is being adopted of inclosing stairways from top to bottom and providing the stair wells with self-closing doors. An open well containing stairs is a dangerous flue in case of a near-by fire. One inclosed stairway is by some considered as good as two open stairways. Fire escapes are a substitute for stairs and are likely to be an inadequate substitute even when designed and constructed with care. Very few of the fire escapes inspected were complete in all essential particulars. Some were built entirely of wood, some were frail, some stopped too far from the ground, and some had iron ladders facing in the wrong direction instead of iron stairs. The railings of the fire escape of one dormitory were fastened with small screws driven into wood plugs in the mortar joints. In one case the screws could be pulled out with the fingers; the others were not tested. Fire escapes, while essential in the absence of sufficient stairs, are not so highly valued as formerly as a means of egress in case of fire or panic. Ladders and ropes are much better than nothing, although, being but a substitute for fire escapes, they become a substitute for a substitute. Fire gongs and fire drills are very valuable and some public-school authorities believe that children are safer in a frame building with fire gongs and well-organized fire drills than in a fireproof building without them. Only one school was found provided with gongs, and in only one was there a regular drill.

From the conditions of indifference previously cited it may be readily inferred that insurance rates are high for colored school buildings, and the common neglect of the most every-day precautions not only needlessly adds to the cost of insurance, but endangers the lives of hundreds of students as well. At one of the most important colleges for Negroes, having an enrollment of nearly 500 students and having various buildings valued at more than \$275,000, the insurance rate is more than eight times as high as that of a near-by institution properly safeguarded against fire both in construction and in maintenance. Each of the institutions referred to is insured for practically the same amount; the one pays \$5,000 annually while the other pays \$600. The high rate is due to the number of fires maintained throughout the buildings and maintained in dangerous surroundings without proper facilities for fighting fire. The building is a boys' dormitory, four stories high, with outside walls of brick and interior construction of wood. In the basement are large boilers inclosed in a small nonfireproof boiler room, with a part of the wooden floor construction exposed overhead. Part of the ceiling is covered with boards, and the big sheet-metal smoke flue, only a few inches from the wood ceiling, is uncovered. Oil lamps are used throughout the building, with their attending dangers. The oil supply for students' use is kept in a large can in the public hall.

The girls' dormitory in the same institution is practically five stories high, with the outside of brick and the inside of wood. This is probably the largest dormitory in the South, and has connected with it two boiler rooms. One high-pressure boiler, providing steam for cooking, washing, and heating, is badly housed in a small, open lean-to and produces a heavy risk, according to the insurance company's inspector. The other large boilers are in the basement in a nonfireproof room having a wooden floor; they are used to generate steam for heating the building and sometimes as high-pressure boilers. Two large stoves for heating flatirons were going full tilt and were dangerously overheated when observed, the kindling wood was stored too near, and a carelessly placed stovepipe ran near the wood of the ceiling. These stoves were in the basement also and all the surrounding construction was of wood. Here, then, is a large dormitory occupied by girls and women teachers, all the interior construction of the building of wood, lighted by hundreds of oil lamps, and the occupants sit undisturbed and sleep unafraid over an inflammable boiler-room containing large boilers, over red-hot stoves in wooden rooms, and alongside of a large boiler run at high pressure. Quite apart from the risk to property, which can be insured—at a price—is it defensible so to endanger human lives? At another institution the treasurer stated that they were unable to get any insurance. Whether this was due to some unfavorable condition in the neighborhood or in the institution or to specific hazards in connection with particular buildings was not ascertained.

At small schools where stoves are used the insurance could be reduced by installing a heating plant in accordance with the recommendations of the insurance company, and by replacing oil lamps with some form of gas light manufactured on the premises. The remedy is to invite the insurance inspector to survey the buildings and render a written report on changes that could be made to reduce the risk from fire and at the same time reduce the insurance rate, have the recommendations reduced to plans and specifications and submitted for bids, and then compare the interest on the investment necessary to make the changes with the reduction in insurance. It will sometimes be found

an actual economy to make the changes; and even if it costs a little more every effort should be made to carry out the recommendations because of the greater degree of safety to life thus secured. One school found that the reduction of the rate of insurance in a two years' policy effected by installing hand grenades would be enough to pay for the hand grenades; and after two years had elapsed the saving would be a net gain. Many cases could be cited outside of schools where fire gongs, fire doors, and fire-alarm systems pay for themselves in reduced insurance, and there is no reason why they should not pay for themselves in school buildings. It would, therefore, appear that at least some of the more profitable forms of fire prevention are omitted not from a consideration of expense, but because of pure ignorance or neglect.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. *Establishment of means by which experience in planning grounds and constructing buildings will be available to worthy institutions in need of such experience—*

(a) By undertaking for such schools, and in conjunction with them, the development of a flexible general plan of physical development.

(b) By providing for a consulting or advisory architect to whom the officers of such schools could turn for consultation as to general procedure when buildings are projected, and to whom plans made at home by manual training teachers, or other non-professionals, could be submitted. Note was made that six institutions are now contemplating erecting buildings. Instances have been mentioned where thousands of dollars would have been saved by such a provision as is here suggested.¹

(c) By arranging for a traveling advisory superintendent of construction capable of extending the survey started by the present report, and available for consultation by such schools during any construction period to suggest the best methods of construction, the best ways of using local materials, and the best way of employing student labor; and to prevent waste of building funds.

(d) By authorizing the advisory superintendent of construction and an expert accountant to devise a system of checks and balances during construction to prevent misdirection and waste of the building funds, intentional or unintentional. Expert accountants have stated that the amount of building funds appropriated usually can be checked with the building funds expended, but that there is no existing method of determining whether the funds as expended are properly expended.

2. *Survey on fire prevention.*—Because of the excessively high cost of insurance due to reckless fire hazards, and because of the frequent, almost criminal neglect to safeguard life against fire, a general survey by an architect or fire-prevention engineer is recommended. The saving in one year's insurance would more than equal the expense of such a survey, and in addition the lives of thousands would be better safeguarded.

3. *Survey by a mechanical engineer.*—The problems concerning heating plants and power plants are the most vexatious and technical ones met in connection with the

¹ As an example of the permanent value of what may be reasonably expected from such a provision the following case is cited (Livingstone College): A college located in the open suburbs of a small city had planned to build a girls' dormitory four and one-half stories high, and comparatively small on the ground, making the building look high and pinched, after the style of small city office buildings of some years ago. It was uninviting, undomestic, and somewhat overloaded with architectural forms. The suggestion was offered, and accepted, that the building should be made lower, simpler, and larger on the ground. The result is noteworthy—a building more attractive, more sincere, less expensive, and quite like a girls' dormitory.

operation of the buildings and grounds. Inasmuch as a considerable part of the institutions have central power plants, some apparently that should not have, while others do not have them but should, and inasmuch as poor design and waste of funds are apparent in the operation of some plants, it is recommended that an experienced, professional mechanical engineer make a specific and constructive report on methods of waste prevention in connection with isolated as well as central power plants.

4. *Model dormitory rooms.*—It is recommended that model dormitory rooms be established at a considerable number of institutions where the benefit would appear to be the greatest. This would be a much-needed and very concrete and direct object lesson in the simple, cheerful treatment of the surfaces of the rooms, and in severe good taste in furniture and furnishings. The colors of the walls, ceilings, windows, and doors would be harmonized and rendered attractive. For each student there should be one well-ventilated closet conveniently arranged and made sanitary with light enamel paint. The floor should be given a good, hard, natural finish. The window composition should be treated as a whole, the hangings, the roller shades, and the window flower boxes forming parts. The furniture should be simple, substantial, and good. A few good prints should be carefully spaced on the walls and some provision made for plain, permanent book shelves or built-in bookcases. Highly colored postcards used in profusion are now the most frequent wall decorations. Penn School has idealized photographs of strong, refined Negro types. Pictures like these would serve the finest purpose in the dormitories and tend to develop appreciation and regard for race. Among the most attractive dormitory rooms seen were those at Lane College, Haines School, Peck Home, Thayer Home, and Kent Home. The use of the model dormitory rooms could perhaps be granted as a prize to the students keeping their rooms in the best order.

5. *A host of small benefits.*—There are a number of important minor improvements which could be made at small expense that would result in great benefit: Glass put in hall doors where the halls are gloomy; model privies constructed of sanitary materials; installation of hand grenades and fire gongs; instruction in methods of construction to prevent shrinkage and settlement of buildings; instruction in making buildings rat-proof, and scores of similar necessities which could be recommended by a traveling advisory superintendent of construction or a consulting architect.

SUMMARY.

From a consideration of the conditions existing in connection with about 256 buildings in the 40 institutions studied at first hand, several conclusions may be drawn.

In order to prevent an institution from becoming invertebrate or deformed physically, it is obviously necessary to provide the means for an organized, well-articulated, physical system, adapted to, or growing out of, its uses; in other words, it is essential first of all to provide a healthy body. More particularly, this means a well-ordered, predetermined plan of development for the buildings and grounds, subject to variation as necessity requires. Only one institution has developed in accord with a commendable although incomplete general plan (Virginia Union University), and only one has as yet adopted a comprehensive plan for its future growth commendable in all essential elements (Hampton Institute). A few others have made feeble attempts toward the adoption of a guiding principle for the evolution of their physical well-being, while the

great majority have developed simply by adding one physical unit to another with such degree of fitness to the whole as the immediate educational requirements indicated or demanded, and as the funds and skill available permitted, but without that long look into the future which should be one of the distinguishing characteristics of an institution of learning. One of the great values of a general study of physical growth is the incidental, important, and unavoidable necessity of first having to evolve the purposes and ideals of the institution as a whole before it is possible to give intelligent direction to the physical aspects; and for such study, vision and prescience of the highest order are demanded.

By means of an established general plan the particular buildings of an institution assume the proper relations to each other and act as articulate parts of the institution as a whole. Secondary in position to the general plan, though of the utmost importance in themselves, are the designing, planning, and construction of individual buildings. Only a few of the buildings seen can be referred to as models to follow in design, arrangement, and construction, although a number may well serve as good examples in many respects; and, considering the circumstances under which the buildings, taken collectively, were produced, the majority may be accepted, condoned, and passed by as fairly good of their kind and sufficient unto the day and generation that produced them. Some of the buildings, as has already been stated, were planned by manual-training teachers, some by architects, and some came into existence without any experienced guidance; accordingly, the buildings, taken as a group, are heterogeneous and without class, and it would be impossible to determine from their appearance what general purpose many of the buildings serve, or what particular academic uses most of the remainder fulfill. The design of buildings for educational uses has become so scientific and specialized that to-day there is no excuse for a dormitory looking like an academic building, or vice versa. The exterior of one of the buildings visited is a veritable museum of bad architecture; another has the mien of an old type of fire-station or factory building in some small town; and still another, though new, suggests something of light manufacturing and warehouse design. A well and economically constructed one-story brick building belonging to one of the Carolina schools resembles a suburban railway station as much as a school building, and the appearance of a proposed dormitory for girls, connected with another school, judged from the preliminary perspective, might have been suggested by the design of an office building in one of the smaller cities 20 years ago. It is with hesitancy that such facts are stated, fearing it may seem that too high a degree of perfection in building is expected of those who are already struggling and advancing as fast as the knowledge and means at hand will permit. It is not more expense or more elaboration that is needed in the external appearance of the buildings, but that the design be the simple and truthful embodiment of the materials employed and of the required uses, and as a consequence there will be less elaboration and more than likely less expense. A true exterior is not a stereotyped architectural veneer fitted to the building any more than true education is an external application to personality. The outside is given the essentials of its expression from within in both cases. Accordingly, the appearance of a building is the incidental external expression of essential internal organized uses; or, more concretely, true appearance or style is a logical outgrowth of the inside arrangement. Of necessity, then, the inside arrangement is more

important than the external appearance, and herein lies the failure of most of the colored school buildings of the South, as far as the external appearance is of value.

The arrangement and construction of the larger and older buildings are no better and no worse than the arrangement and construction of similar buildings of the same period built for white students. The old type of mansard school buildings, whether designed for the colored students of the South or for the white students of the North, is of the same character, style, arrangement, and construction; and while nearly every other branch of school architecture throughout the country has advanced, the average school architecture of colored schools in the South has not progressed in design or planning, and has certainly deteriorated in construction. The best experience is not followed, whether as regards the height of buildings, the height of ceilings, the closeness of the windows to the ceilings, the size of window areas as compared with the size of rooms, the direction of the natural light, or the color of the walls. The construction is less substantial and less carefully done, the timbers are not so strong, settlement of the interior is more pronounced, plaster is greatly inferior, and carpentry is less skilled. Good construction has been adversely influenced by unskilled student labor, even though the instructional value to students is very direct and practical when properly supervised. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that brickwork is almost invariably well done, and that in most of the school buildings the natural ventilation is well regulated.

Costs are more difficult to report upon, due to the lack of intimacy with local conditions necessary to accurate knowledge, and to the difficulties that the promoters of the buildings doubtless encountered. Even though the money expended bought as much material and labor as it should, still the buildings would be expensive because of the prevalence of ineffective arrangement and false as well as faulty construction and embellishment. But it is just as likely due to various other causes, proper and improper, that the funds expended do not buy so much labor and materials as they should; and the opinion is ventured, based on the sum of such observations as were made, that at least one-tenth of the funds appropriated for building purposes is wasted, either confiscated, misappropriated, or spent on vaneer, ineffective arrangement, or inexperienced and short-lived construction. A new building is dreamed of for years, the effort to accumulate the needed funds is heroic, and the consummation of the building is a great climax; and then to find \$1,000 of every \$10,000 of the building funds or of the funds in the building of no avail, is pitiful indeed.

As a general statement, it may be said that there is a very praiseworthy effort to provide sanitary surroundings, however badly some of the schools may fail in certain phases of sanitation. Institutions that are situated in cities and have sewer connections are usually well provided with toilet rooms fitted with standard plumbing fixtures. Country institutions usually have privies; but, despite the accepted theory of good privies and the endeavor to follow it, they are not satisfactory. The expense of installing a sewerage system would be prohibitive for nearly all the country institutions, and doubtless privies will continue. If they were built of sanitary materials and according to the best sanitary experience, decently finished, carefully used by the students, and regularly and frequently cared for by the authorities, they would prove an acceptable substitute in the absence of any better system. Of course, the city schools have the city water supply, while the country schools depend upon wells, driven or dug. The

driven wells are almost always safe from surface contamination, and the dug wells had in all cases but one received some attention, not always sufficient, however, to guarantee freedom from surface pollution.

Vermin—bugs, insects, mice, and rats—are a common annoyance; the mice and rats a destructive one as well. There is no question that the destruction of values by mice and rats would pay many times over for the cost of making the buildings practically vermin proof in the manner previously indicated.

The natural ventilation of classrooms and dormitories by means of windows and transoms was in the main satisfactory, and indicated that some definite influences had made clear the wholesome value of fresh air.

The mechanical plants for developing heat, light, and power are a very considerable and troublesome element in the expense of operating the buildings, including the industrial machinery. Mechanical plants as installed are of two types: The central plant, located in a central powerhouse separate from the academic buildings; and the isolated, separate, or individual heating plant for each building, usually located in the basement but occasionally in a small adjoining building. The determination of which of these two types is the more economical to install at any given institution, assuming the funds to be available, is a highly complicated and technical problem that calls for the most careful judgment and expert skill for its solution. About one-fourth of the institutions included in this survey have central power plants, and the buildings of the remaining institutions are heated by separate boilers or stoves in about equal proportions. It is very probable that some institutions now having a central power plant and a minimum of industrial machinery could operate more economically by having a number of more elementary heating plants, one for each building or group of buildings; and if electricity were not manufactured it should be bought, if possible, from some nearby city. It is also more than probable that a few institutions now heated by a number of separate boilers could profitably combine them in a central plant; and, furthermore, some of the large buildings now using stoves could doubtless install furnaces to advantage and even at a saving when the reduction in insurance is considered, quite aside from the greater safety to life which would be secured by the lessening of danger from fire.

BUILDING AXIOMS AND THE A B C'S OF CONSTRUCTION.

The following brief suggestions will, it is believed, be found helpful by school officers and others concerned with building construction.

BUILDING AXIOMS.

1. *Selection of site.*—In selecting a site watch the sun, the rain, the wind, the view. The direction of the sun will locate the heat and the shade; the run-off of the rain will show the slope and the nature of the soil; and the direction of the wind will indicate the cool and cold exposures.

2. *General plan of grounds.*—Evolve and adopt a general plan for future extension. Accept suggestions offered by existing natural features and face the buildings inward and toward each other unless, owing to the excessive slope of the land or to other considerations, such an arrangement is impracticable. A plan like this will save time, trouble, and expense and will result in a more orderly and attractive appearance.

3. *When building, build well.*—Cheap construction is not usually economical construction. It is better economy to construct buildings small, durable, and ready for extension than to build commodi-

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A CALIFORNIA BUILDING SUGGESTED AS A SUITABLE TYPE FOR SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

ously and cheaply. It is better to omit useless towers, spires, galvanized iron embellishments, etc., than to economize on the foundations or the strength and durability of the building. It is better to build solidly of frame than cheaply of brick. Frame is generally more attractive than brick and less expensive. The frame Colonial houses have lasted a hundred years or more.

4. *Build low.*—When land is available, have the buildings low—not more than three stories in brick, two stories in wood—and if possible, do not use the basement for academic purposes.

5. *The best advice is the cheapest.*—It will pay in the end to consult a good architect before building, and a good mechanical engineer before installing a central power plant. School buildings have become highly specialized; the scientific problems connected with them and their proper and economic design and construction require a high order of professional training and experience.

6. *Simple appearance.*—School buildings are not institutions of confinement, neither are they museums of architecture. The appearance should be inviting, cheerful, more domestic than institutional, and should be an indication and an outgrowth of the inner uses.

7. *Use materials according to their nature.*—It is better to build plainly of good materials than to build elaborately with imitations. It is better to build of wood than to imitate brickwork with pressed sheets of tin, or stone with rough cast concrete. Don't construct the ornament; ornament the construction.

8. *Classrooms and dormitory rooms.*—Rooms with high ceilings are expensive to build, expensive to heat and light, and necessitate longer stairs and more building to contain them. Natural light for classrooms should be admitted on the left side only, the windows should be close to the ceiling, and the glass about equal in area to 20 per cent of the floor area, varying according to latitude. The color of walls should be pale; a shade of light grayish buff is excellent. In dormitory rooms the closets should be open at the top or bottom, or both; and it is suggested that the transoms over the entrance door be fitted with fixed slats for ventilation.

A B C'S OF CONSTRUCTION.

1. Settlement in buildings and cracking of plaster are usually caused by the shrinkage of cross timber in the framework. To prevent shrinkage, make the vertical timbers continuous from bottom to top. Student labor is at its best when encouraged by the example of skilled mechanics.

Employ about one-fourth as much skilled labor as there is student labor.

2. Use well-dried timber and lumber.

3. It pays to use edgegrain or combgrain flooring in all public or much-used spaces. To prevent cracking, have a solid underfloor, nail it well, and see that the tongues of the finish flooring fit the grooves tightly.

4. Good plastering is rare and calls for skill. Don't use too much sand; don't forget the fiber; don't apply it too thick—put in a little cement. Be sure to employ a good mechanic.

5. Leave air spaces about the ends of timbers built into brick walls.

6. Never build masonry on wood supports.

7. Always plaster the inside of chimneys if they are not built with flue lining; plaster also the outside woodwork near by and keep the chimney from touching the woodwork. This will prevent fire by contact and through settlement cracks.

8. Hot-air flues and steam pipes should be kept clear of all wood to prevent fire. When they must run close to wood, wrap them with asbestos.

9. Tightly cross top all partitions at each floor with brickwork, sheet metal, or timber to prevent fire and lessen the chance of vermin.

10. Cover all furnace rooms with nothing less burnable than metal lath and hard plaster. All boiler rooms should be fireproof.

11. If the basement leaks through the masonry side walls, buy one of the recent waterproofing cements and trowel it in hard.

12. Keep the sheet-metal work painted unless it is of copper.

13. Don't forget the fire escapes. See that they are kept in good repair and unobstructed. There should be two separate ways of exit from every part of every building, either by stairs or fire escapes.

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XII. HISTORY OF NEGRO EDUCATION.

INTRODUCTION.

The history of the various educational processes to which the Negroes of America have been subjected is interwoven with the history of the United States from the year 1619, when the first slaves were landed, to the present moment. The story of the development of the African slave, with his easy-going barbarism, to the present condition of the American Negro is full of interest and instruction and worthy of much more extended scientific treatment than this chapter can possibly comprehend.

With all the mistakes that have been made by the American democracy in its treatment of the Negroes, both as slaves and as free men, the general movement of the Negro people has been decidedly forward. Even under slavery these black people benefited by a contact with civilization that no corresponding groups of blacks have had in any other part of the world. The good results of this contact are acknowledged by the thoughtful Negro leaders to have been far in excess of the evils. No adequate measure of the progress under slavery is available.

Systematic efforts to build schools for the Negroes were undertaken only after the beginning of the Civil War. The facts presented in the report are striking evidence of the remarkable progress that has been made since 1860 not only in providing school facilities but also in really preparing the Negroes to become a part of American democracy. The more important of these facts may be summarized as follows:

1. That \$5,860,876¹ is spent annually by the public authorities of Southern States in the salaries of teachers in public schools for Negroes.
2. That the Federal, State and land-grant schools have an annual income of \$963,611 and a total property valuation of \$5,727,609.
3. That the private schools have an annual income of \$3,026,460 and a property valuation of \$28,496,946.
4. That eight educational funds are devoting part or all of their income for the improvement of Negro schools.
5. That the Negroes themselves are contributing an increasing share to the support of their schools.
6. That Negro illiteracy is now only 30 per cent, and the illiteracy of Negroes between 10 and 20 years of age is much lower than this.
7. That Negro farm laborers and Negro farmers cultivate at least a hundred million acres of land, of which forty-two and a half millions are in farms owned or rented by Negroes.
8. That Negroes own twenty million acres of land, an area equal to that of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island.

While these facts are indications of progress in the past and promises of forward movements in the future, they do not prove that the Negroes as a race have attained

¹ Figures not complete for Tennessee and Mississippi.

to the American standards of life or that these United States are rendering to the Negroes the educational aid which they need or deserve. Reference to the other chapters of this report will show that the Negroes have only made a good beginning in the acquisition of the knowledge, skill, and habits yet to be attained and also that the combined public and private facilities for the education of the Negroes are inadequate in quality and quantity.

The history of the education of the Negro is divided naturally into three periods:

1. Education prior to 1861.
2. Educational efforts of the Civil War period.
3. Education through public and private funds since the Civil War.

The first period has been discussed in a book¹ recently written by Carter Godwin Woodson and published by Putnam's Sons.

The principal facts for these periods are presented in this chapter by Dr. G. S. Dickerman and Dr. Julius A. Parmelee. In the first section Dr. Dickerman covers the whole period; in the second Dr. Parmelee describes the work of the Freedmen's Aid societies of the Civil War period.

HISTORY OF NEGRO EDUCATION.

By GEORGE S. DICKERMAN.

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Into the struggling life of the pioneers of America came the first Negroes landed in this country; brought out of African savagery and sold in Virginia as slaves; set down side by side with indentured bondmen from England, whose lot was little better, to be taught civilization. It was compulsory education and most effective. How soon they learned to talk the English language; to copy the kindlier manners of their new neighbors; to fulfill the duties laid on them; to put their mind upon their tasks; and to lose some of their terror of Voodoo spells in the happier faith of Christianity! It was all as unlike the valley of the Congo from which they came as one could well imagine. People were clothed instead of going naked; they could not live on wild native fruits, but had to dig that they might enjoy the harvest; there were better enterprises to undertake than to hunt for men and to fight with other tribes on the chance of catching slaves from them or being caught themselves; it was a condition of order and of law, of homes and housekeeping, of community life and neighborly usages, with prizes of a hundred kinds for good behavior and the habit of fidelity. Of course, there was a great deal that was rough and hard; sometimes there were cuffs and blows, curses and the driver's lash for any lagging in the work required; often injustice and cruelty, but in contrast with Africa, it was a land of golden opportunity.

In the 200 years and more that preceded the great emancipation, the number of people of African descent grew to be about 4,000,000. The processes of these 200 years are profoundly significant as a preparation for the responsibilities of freedom that came so suddenly at the close of the war. The training of the Negro during this period, and the attitude of the thoughtful people of the country toward his training, are deserving of treatment separate from that given to the development of the school system as it is known to-day. The difference in attitude brought on by the fear of so-called slave

¹ "The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861," G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915.

uprising and by the pre-Civil War debates divides this period rather clearly into two parts. The first extends from the landing of the slaves in 1619 to about 1830; the second, the pre-Civil War period, extends from about 1830 to 1860.

THE EARLY TEACHING OF SLAVE.

There is striking proof of the high estimate which the more enlightened people of the country put upon the Negro's character and capabilities in the enterprises for African colonization which were made so much of in the first half of the last century. An interesting feature of this movement was the union of benevolent people in the South with those of like mind in the North and the harmony of spirit which long prevailed. With the teachings of the Declaration of Independence dominant everywhere, thinking people felt that slavery could not be countenanced forever in a free country; and the practical way to deal with the Negroes seemed to be to set them off in colonies by themselves. Jefferson suggested that there might be such a colony in some part of the region to the northwest of Ohio or that a retreat be found for them in the West Indies; and later, in 1811, after the colony of Sierra Leone had been planted by the British Government, he wrote that nothing was more to be wished than that the United States should undertake to make such an establishment on the coast of Africa. In 1816 the Legislature of Virginia took action to the same end, and a year later the American Colonization Society was organized at the Capital of the Nation, with Justice Bushrod Washington as president and distinguished men from all parts of the land in the list of vice presidents. During the following 15 years, until 1832, vigorous efforts were made for the support of this society in all the different States. State societies, county societies, church societies and local bands, auxiliary to the national organization, were started; in 1832 a list was printed of 231 such auxiliaries, of which 127 were in the slave States and 104 elsewhere. In the lists of their presidents, secretaries, and treasurers are found the names of John Marshall and James Madison, of Virginia; Charles Carroll, of Maryland; Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina; Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey; Edward Everett, of Massachusetts; Gerritt Smith and Arthur Tappan, of New York; Jeremiah Day and Leonard Bacon, of Connecticut, with others of similar standing in the North and South alike; governors, judges, ministers of the gospel, and prominent business men. The purpose on which the country was thus united was the building up of Liberia, the establishment in Africa of a republic upon the pattern of the United States, to be made up of freed slaves from America. All this shows what was thought of the Negroes at that time; how the ablest men believed in them as equal to grave civil responsibilities. However wild the project looks to-day, the very launching of it was a significant tribute to these people.

Prior to 1830 the thoughtful people of the South were not opposed to the education of their slaves. There was a special recognition of the need of teaching reading as a means of becoming familiar with the Bible and the doctrines of Christianity. It was necessary for practical reasons that some of the slaves on a large estate should know how to read. Some of the house servants who were depended on for the care of the master's children aided them in their lessons, and for this reason needed to have some knowledge of reading, writing, and simple arithmetic. The laws made in times of panic against teaching a Negro to read can not fairly be taken as embodying the preva-

lent attitude or usual policy of the southern white people. The history of the South in early times tells of men and women, here and there, who interested themselves particularly in the welfare of the slaves and in teaching them to read as a prerequisite for religious training and membership in the church. In 1695 the minister of Goose Creek Parish, near Charleston, gathered a class of Negroes and gave them a course of systematic instruction in Christian truth. Before 1700 the Friends of North Carolina were especially active in similar efforts. In 1744 two young colored men, who had received a special education for the purpose, were set over a school in Charleston which opened with some 60 pupils and was continued for a number of years. Later the free colored people of Charleston, who were prosperous and had ample means, maintained their own schools; and in the early part of the nineteenth century, when the law forbade Negroes to teach, white teachers were employed in their schools. Particularly interesting is the story of the Moody brothers, the eldest of whom began to teach Negro children in 1638, and was followed by his three brothers and a brother-in-law, one after another, till they had together given instruction to some 1,200 pupils.

In his book, *The Education of the Negro*, Woodson relates briefly how more than 50 Negroes of some distinction severally received in slavery days the beginnings of their education, usually by the favor of some one who was personally interested in their improvement. He estimates that in 1863 some 10 per cent of the adult Negroes in the United States had the rudiments of education, adding as his opinion that the number was much less than it had been about 1825.

It seems open to question whether there were more educated Negroes in 1825 than in 1863. Undoubtedly there were more in some cities where the harsh measures used against them led to a flight to more favorable abodes. But the removal, for example, of Frederick Douglass, from Baltimore to New York, or of Daniel A. Payne from Charleston to Gettysburg, or of the Quakers in North Carolina to a freer air in Ohio, did not by any means eliminate them from the Negro ranks; but rather set them in positions where their own education could go on by leaps and bounds, and their inspiring personality become a ten-fold greater force in promoting the educational ambition of their comrades. In 1825 education for the Negro was undoubtedly more in honor among the white people than afterwards. The advertisements of the time show that it was sometimes regarded as adding to the market value of a slave, so as to be put forward to help the sale. By the middle of the century all this was changed; the schools of free Negroes were frowned upon and teaching slaves was under the ban; an intelligent Negro became an object of suspicion, and it was not politic for one to be known as able to read and write. On this account the estimate of their number was likely to be much below what it actually was.

PRE-CIVIL-WAR PERIOD.

Although some of the early State legislatures passed laws providing for the supervision of meetings of slaves by white men, the more stringent laws prohibiting the assembling and teaching of Negroes were not passed until the period between 1830 and 1835. The immediate cause of the passage of these laws was a series of uprisings of slaves. The laws were enacted to prevent the slaves from reading the literature of the French and Haitian Revolutions and the writings of the abolitionists.

While these laws were a natural expression of the highly wrought emotional excitement that prevailed after the disturbance headed by Denmark Vesey and the more serious affair of Nat Turner, it is probable that such laws were not rigidly enforced. It is more likely that the effect of the law was to make the slaves value the ability to read all the more, and to incline them in quiet ways to impart the precious gift to their friends. It seems likely, too, that the more liberal-minded masters and mistresses, out in the open country over the vast regions of the South, thought nothing whatever of such a law and paid no attention to it, in any instructions they wished to impart to favorite servants in their houses. As bearing on this point, some weight may be given to words uttered about 1840 by the Hon. J. B. O'Neal, a distinguished jurist of South Carolina, at one time Speaker of the House of Representatives, and in his later years the chief justice of the State:

It is in vain to say there is danger in it. The best slaves of the State are those who can and do read the Scriptures. Again, who is it that teaches your slaves to read? It is generally done by the children of the owners. Who would tolerate an indictment against his son or daughter for teaching a slave to read? Such laws look to me as rather cowardly.

Perhaps it is not a bold conclusion that this kindly and reasonable usage in a great many homes was one of the things that bound the slaves so closely to their masters' families as to hold them fast in all the vicissitudes of the war.

It may safely be concluded, therefore, that a great many more Negroes were able to read and write in the period just preceding the Civil War than was generally thought to be the case, either in the South or the North. Nor is it unreasonable to suppose that the intellectual enlightenment which was beginning to have so many expressions in the earlier years of the century grew on and steadily became wider in its quiet pervasiveness, notwithstanding the many adverse conditions with which it had to contend.

If the estimate is correct that some 10 per cent of the adult Negroes at the time of the war had the rudiments of education, or if even only 5 per cent of the freedmen had this knowledge, the task of the hour for the teachers was quite different from what has usually been supposed. To bring the chance for an education to a people of whom five out of every hundred have the habit of learning is another thing from dealing with people of whom none have taken even the first steps. It is all the difference between taking them at the lowest stage and meeting them after they have mastered the earlier lessons. It must have meant very much to the teachers if there were a few of their pupils who were above the primary grade. This goes far to explain the demand that came so soon for secondary schools and those of a more advanced grade. There were some of the pupils whose education had begun long before these teachers saw them; had begun in their old slave environment and with their own parents or some fellow slave, or perhaps their master's children, for teachers; and so they were the more ready for new privileges.

It may well be supposed that these men and women of greater intelligence, as soon as opportunities began to open, were especially ambitious for the superior education of their children and that the pupils of most promise in all the schools were largely drawn from their ranks. This is the ready explanation of the swift development of these schools and of the necessity for classes above the primary grade. Here, too, is the explanation of certain unlooked-for manifestations of a scholarly spirit and intellectual

aptitude that early surprised the teachers. Actually their pupils, many of them, had a good deal more back of them than they ever imagined. They were of parentage that was by no means to be despised. They had been tenderly watched over from infancy and received a careful training in manners and behavior. As servants in their master's house they had been daily observers of the life going on there; breathing its atmosphere of elevation; seeing the able men and cultivated women that were entertained at its table; listening often to superior conversation, and catching many a strong impression to stay with them.

THE CIVIL-WAR PERIOD.

The Negroes as contraband.—The soldiers of the Union armies did not see much of the favorable aspect of slavery. Neither did the officers of the several Freedmen's Commissions or the agents of philanthropic societies or the missionary teachers who came down from the North in the wake of the armies. They saw the riff-raff of slavery which drifted into the camps. The army posts were generally in the neighborhood of great plantations, where slaves were worked in large gangs at raising cotton, rice, and sugar. Fortress Monroe was at the edge of the Virginia plantations; Newbern was adjacent to those of eastern North Carolina; Hilton Head was in the region of the rice swamps and sea-island cotton, where to-day some 90 per cent of the inhabitants are Negroes; Mobile was similarly placed; New Orleans was the metropolis of the sugar industry with vast plantations, in which the condition of the field workers was hardest; Port Hudson, Vicksburg, and Memphis belonged to the great cotton-raising district of the Mississippi Valley. At all these points the refugees were mostly field hands.

The more attractive and competent servants, attached more closely to their masters by personal interest as well as by their fidelity, were seldom seen in the camps. They did what they thought to be their duty, as they had always done. They kept the same attitude toward their masters and their masters' families as before the war. They did the best they knew how with the estates left in their charge; keeping along in the familiar round of daily tasks; bringing to their service perhaps a more scrupulous fidelity because of the heavier responsibilities falling to them in the absence of their masters at the front; tenderly watching over their lonely mistresses and the children, intent on making their burdens a little lighter, and comforting them in the hours of their sorrow, raising the cotton and corn, and tending the garden; looking out for the cattle, and keeping supplies of food in store for the great house and also for the cabins; meeting each emergency in simple, unwavering steadfastness; and all with full knowledge that defeat of the Confederate cause would mean the breaking of their bonds.

The great body of the Negroes remained where they had always lived during the whole four years. The number of those to whom the Freedmen's Bureau gave out rations was at one time 90,637. This was just after the war closed, in August, 1865, and it included the distributions at all the army posts. A large number; but how few compared with those who never came to the bureau! Make it fourfold for the whole length of the war; call it 400,000, and even then it is only some 10 per cent of the estimated 4,000,000 Negroes in the country at that time, leaving 90 per cent besides them. That is to say, something like three and a half million remained in the service of their old masters till the proclamation of President Lincoln set them free. These of course included all the more steady-going and contented; most of those who had kind and con-

siderate masters; the industrious, skillful, and competent; the house servants; the managers—about all who were intrusted with serious responsibilities on the estates to which they belonged.

The Southern white people usually speak in high praise of the behavior of their slaves while the war was going on. It was convincing proof of intrinsic worth to deserve such praise. It was a revelation of character such as neither the North nor the South had looked for. The South had feared that the Negroes might rise in insurrection at the first favorable moment; the North had expected that they would, and that the Confederate government, thus attacked in the rear, would be hopelessly disorganized. Both were surprised, for the Negroes became a source of strength to the Confederacy; they kept up the industries of the country, did the work in all fields for raising supplies to feed the people and maintain the armies. They were not the fickle creatures many had supposed, but were found to be thoroughly reliable.

To be sure, this was largely due to habit. It was a consequence of training. Slavery was a discipline. On every estate, in every day of the year, there were things to be done and the slaves had to do them. That was their regular life and they knew no other. They were under a certain pressure to do as well as they could. Promptness, agility, and skill met with favor. Proficiency was likely to gain promotion. Those of the most ability came to the front and were wanted in places where their superiority could be made the most of. There was a classification; at the bottom were the field hands; those who were set to dig and carry burdens; above these were overseers and managers; then those skilled in trades had their places—carpenters, masons, blacksmiths, and wheelwrights; teamsters had a certain dignity, for it required judgment to handle horses and mules; and still more to make up a load of goods and to deal tactfully with merchants. In the ordering of the house and in the care of the master's family, there were high positions of another sort, some of delicacy and personal familiarity, often involving sacred confidences and important interests. The positions of greater dignity were the natural prizes of diligence and ambition, and when once such a position had been gained the greatest care was taken to satisfy its demands and to continue in favor. Thus there were not a few able men and women among the slaves and in the homes of slaveholders who were devoted to their masters' concerns, and qualified when left to themselves to carry on affairs with little risk to the estate.

The Negroes who came straggling into the Union lines were of a different type. They were hungry, ragged, ignorant, confused by their wretched plight and begging for protection. The first necessity was food, shelter, clothing; in some cases immediate medical attendance; and the pitiable creatures were to be counted by hundreds and thousands. The appeal that went up to the people of the North was not altogether unlike that which has come from the stricken and homeless sufferers in the European war. And the response at that time was similar to the generous relief provided for the people of Belgium, Serbia, and Poland.

But in one respect the need of these Negroes was peculiar. They were escaped slaves; and it was decided that they were not to be returned to slavery; so it was a question, not merely of present relief, but of how they could be provided for permanently. Something had to be done that they might be prepared to take care of themselves eventually and make an honest living. In the new life of independence they were entering

they had everything to learn; therefore they had to be taught. In a word, those who were dealing with them had about the same problem to handle that the old Virginia settlers had when the first cargo of Negroes was landed there from Africa. These sorry creatures must be taught to behave; to mind what they were about; to work and do their work well; to use good English and to play the part of men. It was the teacher's job and a hard job for any who were bold enough to try it.

But the teachers were forthcoming; hundreds of them; cultivated, high-minded, bent on accomplishing this big undertaking, with a determination something like that of Francis Xavier, Henry Martyn, and Adoniram Judson. And like these messengers to the Orient, they made their errand one of religious purpose. They could see no way to make these fugitive slaves into decent, law-abiding, industrious people but to give them a new character, a changed life. They must be led into an intelligent religion that should govern the whole round of their conduct. And for this they must be brought to the Bible. Therefore they must learn how to read it at the very start. And so they went to teaching grown-up men and women their letters. Perhaps it looks odd to us; but there was good sense in it.

It was a noble service. There were aspects of sublimity about it; and any who are disposed to belittle it or to speak lightly of the results that flowed from it show that they do not understand the tremendous interests at stake in that critical hour of the Nation's life; that hour of destiny, too, for these many thousand Negroes "scattered abroad as sheep having no shepherd" and faint-hearted for a friendly voice and some word of encouragement.

While such efforts were made to teach the Negroes to read, those engaged in this work did not by any means stop here; they set about every sort of teaching that might be of practical use. They did their best to improve the habits of the people; influencing them to be cleanly and orderly; calling them to promptness and regularity in their attendance on appointed exercises; giving the men work to do of various kinds and looking out to see that it was done properly; showing the women how to cook their food so as not to spoil it, how to mend and make garments and to be good housekeepers. The Boston Educational Commission in 1862 laid it down as a foremost object to bring about the "industrial improvement" of the Negroes, and it was in the very make-up of these thrifty New England men and women, and those from other parts of the North, to be a vital force in behalf of general efficiency wherever they took up a work like this.

The Negroes as soldiers.—But another school was awaiting the men in these camps. With the beginning of 1863, immediately after the emancipation proclamation, a call was made for Negroes to enlist in the United States Army, to which there came a ready response. Before the end of that year there were 100,000 former slaves in the military service, about half of whom bore arms in the ranks; and by the close of the war the number of Negro troops had risen to 186,000.

It has been usual to speak of this enlistment in its bearings on the progress of the war. Gen. Grant set a high estimate upon his Negro troops, as some of his dispatches show, and President Lincoln said:

By arming them we have added a powerful ally. They will make good soldiers, and taking them from the enemy weakens him in the same proportion as they strengthen us.

But there is another point of view, the influence of this military life on the men who enlisted. Taken as they were at that time, especially those who were in the camps or floating about the country, without settled abodes or regular occupation, what could have happened more to their advantage than to be summoned to the orderly habits and rigid discipline of a soldier's life? Thus, while the measure relieved the beneficent organizations of a burden, it put the freedmen into a far more effective school than it was possible to provide for them in the former way.

In some of the regiments there were commanding officers of so fine a mold that it was an inspiration to noble manhood to be under their orders. When Gov. Andrews of Massachusetts was choosing officers for the two colored regiments that went from that State, he set it before him to find men "of acknowledged military ability and experience, of the highest social position if possible, and who believed in the capacity of colored men to make good soldiers." Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, of the first colored regiment mustered into service, was a man of this order, as his illustrious life has amply shown. Col. Robert Gould Shaw, of the Massachusetts Fifty-fourth, not only proved his own greatness, but his aptitude in making heroes of the men who charged with him to their death in the storming of Fort Wagner. Another of these commanders of Negro soldiers was Gen. Samuel Chapman Armstrong, who went from his honorable military service to the still larger civil service of building up the famous industrial school at Hampton. And yet another was Maj. Horace Bumstead, who was afterward president of Atlanta University. The colonels, majors, captains, and lieutenants of the colored troops as a whole were men of no ordinary character. They were of the sort who do not flinch from taking their stand on the side of an unpopular cause, so it be right, and they put their best endeavor into the training of the troops over whom they were in command. It was an educational opportunity of no trifling significance. Two years or more of daily drill in such a school had in it the making of manhood.

Freedmen's Aid Societies.—Soon after the Civil War began, several societies were formed to aid in the care and education of the freedman.¹ With the progress of the war the operations of the societies were constantly changing to meet new demands. They began at Fortress Monroe and Hilton Head in 1861 and took up work in other places, as one by one they were opened, and necessity appeared for the service they might render. As the field widened, supplies in larger quantity were required, more money had to be raised, and a greater number of agents and teachers sent down to the several centers of activity. The teachers at the beginning were mostly men, as was befitting the rough duties undertaken; but it was not long before conditions were such as to invite the ministries of women and the force was largely made up of them. The work of looking after the refugees yielded in time to efforts of many kinds in behalf of the communities. Attention was turned to the young people and children, and schools were opened and maintained particularly for their benefit. Preaching and Sunday-school work were also made very prominent. Thus a certain stability and promise of continuance began to be seen.

While the war lasted, these movements were carried on and maintained by voluntary organizations in the North, though uniformly with the approval and cooperation

¹ For further details see Dr. Parmelee's discussion, p. 268.

of the military forces.¹ But on March 3, 1865, about a month before the surrender of Gen. Lee, the United States Congress passed an act establishing the Freedmen's Bureau in the War Department: "A bureau of refugees, freedmen, and abandoned lands, to which should be committed the supervision and management of all abandoned lands and the control of all subjects relating to refugees and freedmen." This brought the Government into formal participation in these endeavors with the certainty of adequate financial resources. The bureau was organized with a general superintendent, a general inspector, and a superintendent of schools in each district. "In entering on the work a few schools were found in charge of tax commissioners, a few maintained by the Negroes themselves; but by far the greater number were under the care of the Northern societies. General supervision was at once instituted over all schools; reports were made at stated intervals; unused Government buildings were thrown open for school houses, and transportation and subsistence for a time were furnished to the teachers." This cooperation was definitely approved by Congress in the following year, July 16, 1866, and provision for maintenance extended to two years from that date. Half a million dollars was set aside for school expenses. Then grading and systematizing followed, and the societies were stimulated to greater endeavor. The efficiency of the bureau continued to 1870, when the last congressional appropriations for this object were expended and its influence became little more than nominal.

At first, and for some years after the close of the war, the teaching in colored schools was mostly elementary. It was so from the nature of the situation. There was no call for any other than the simplest lessons; and after the Negroes had all been made free it was most essential that a chance should be given them everywhere to acquire some education as a qualification for citizenship. So the task of the Freedmen's Bureau, joining with the other agencies already in the field, was to set up these elementary schools in all places where there were freedmen to attend them. These schools were made public in the largest sense and free to all who cared to attend them.

CHURCH SCHOOLS AFTER THE WAR.

*While church boards.*¹—With these developments under the leadership of the bureau, the people who had maintained the previous operations began to turn their minds to schools of a higher grade; and at this point appear indications of denominational purpose. During the war, considerations of patriotism and humanity were dominant, and churches of every name united in the efforts undertaken; but, with the return of peace, missionary enterprise took into view the churches that were to grow up among the freedmen, and shaped itself more or less in their behalf. This was most natural in those churches whose affiliations in the South had been strongest before the war—the Baptist, Methodist, and Presbyterian churches. For the sake of these churches that were to be, they took measures to build up schools of higher learning at carefully chosen centers, which they hoped might become favorite resorts for scholars, rallying points for religious organization and institutions of Christian culture and enlightenment for all the region around.

The Baptists instituted Shaw University at Raleigh in 1865; Roger Williams at Nashville and Morehouse at Atlanta in 1867, Leland at New Orleans in 1869, and

¹ For a discussion of the present work of these boards, see p. 190.

Benedict at Columbia in 1871; and the Free Baptists established Storer at Harpers Ferry in 1867. The Methodist Episcopal Church instituted Walden at Nashville in 1865, Rust at Holly Springs in 1866, Morgan at Baltimore in 1867, Haven Academy at Waynesboro in 1868, Claflin at Orangeburg in 1869, and Clark at Atlanta in 1870. The Presbyterians already had their important school in Pennsylvania, called Ashmun Institute, now Lincoln University, founded in 1854; to which was added Biddle University in 1867. The Episcopal Church instituted St. Augustine's at Raleigh in 1867.

The larger number of those who had been most actively engaged in the school work during the war continued to keep the educational interests of the colored people uppermost in their thought and were less inclined to plans for church extension; but they saw the necessity for advanced training to prepare teachers for the immense field that was opening to view; and so they also turned a great deal of attention to building up institutions of higher learning for this object. This was the case with the American Missionary Association. At this period it depended for its maintenance on contributions from the people of several different denominations; it was not practicable, therefore to do much in the way of church activity. Later on, as a number of these denominations undertook operations by themselves, the association was left to the support of Congregational churches, and so became a Congregational agency; but this development could not be foreseen at that time. Its work then was necessarily restricted to the educational field. Perhaps for this very reason it was the more prolific in schools especially designed for preparing teachers. In 1865 it had Avery Institute at Charleston, Ballard Normal at Macon, and Washburn at Beaufort, N. C.; in 1866, Trinity at Athens, Ala., Gregory at Wilmington, N. C., and Fisk University at Nashville; in 1867, Talladega College in Alabama, Emerson at Mobile, Storrs at Atlanta, and Beach at Savannah; in 1868, Hampton Institute in Virginia, Knox at Athens, Ga., Burwell at Selma, Ala., since removed to Florence, and the Ely Normal, now a public school in Louisville; in 1869, Straight University at New Orleans, Tougaloo in Mississippi, Le Moyne at Memphis, and Lincoln at Marion, Ala.; in 1870, Dorchester Academy at McIntosh, and the Albany Normal in Georgia.

The United States Government in 1867 chartered Howard University "for the education of youth in the liberal arts and sciences," with special provision for the higher education of negroes, but designed for all who might wish to study there, with no race discriminations.

Several notable schools were started in this early period by representatives of the Society of Friends; in 1862 Miss Towne and Miss Murray opened the Penn School on Helena Island, in the neighborhood of Hilton Head; in 1865 Cornelia Hancock, of Philadelphia, opened the Laing School at Mount Pleasant, in the vicinity of Charleston, and carried it on till 1869, when it passed into the charge of Abby D. Munro, of Bristol, R. I., who continued it for upward of 40 years; in 1868 Martha Schofield, of Pennsylvania, founded the industrial school at Aiken which bears her name and was under her management till very recently, when she resigned on account of the infirmities of age. In 1864 Calvin and Alida Clark, with the support of the Society of Friends in Indiana, started a work for colored orphans in Helena, Ark.; and then, in 1869, the educational need having become paramount, removed some 10 miles to a farm in the country and established there the Southland College.

Many Unitarians, from the beginning, have been among the foremost supporters of this educational work for the colored people, but have been quite satisfied to let their gifts go in whatever channels seemed most inviting, without taking pains to have them credited to any organization of their particular denomination.

The growth of educational forces throughout the field is shown by the continual establishment of new schools as well as by the increasing effectiveness of the older ones. Several churches that have not been referred to have had an important share in the movement. The Reformed Presbyterians had their workers among the Negro refugees at Beaufort, Fernandina, Washington, and Natchez during the war. Between 1864 and 1866 they maintained a school at Natchez with an enrollment of some 300 pupils, but in 1874 they undertook a more permanent work in Selma, Ala., with the planting of Knox Academy, which has kept to high educational standards and exerted a most important influence. The United Presbyterians, likewise, had a school in Nashville in 1863, which was carried on in a quiet way till 1875, when Knoxville College was started to do normal work and forthwith took its position as a central station from which a whole group of schools was directed, several in east Tennessee, others in North Carolina and Virginia, and a number of rural schools in Wilcox County, Ala. In 1878 a school was opened at Franklinton, N. C., which was maintained by the "American Christian Convention" and in 1890 was chartered as the Franklinton Christian College. The Southern Presbyterians, in 1876, established Stillman Institute at Tuscaloosa for the education of Negroes for the Christian ministry. The Southern Methodist Episcopal Church in 1884 founded Paine College at Augusta, Ga. Thus the several bodies of Christian people each had its own organized activities in behalf of the colored people.

*Negro church boards.*¹—Meanwhile, as these people became better educated, their churches grew in numbers and strength, and the conviction began to find expression that they ought to have schools under their own management. The African Methodist Church had already had Wilberforce in Ohio, founded in 1847, and Western in Kansas, founded in 1864; but they felt that the time had come for other institutions, which should be planted at important centers of power in the South. So, in 1880, this church secured ground in Columbia, S. C., began to build as soon as they were able, and in 1881 opened Allen University; then steps were taken to establish another school in Atlanta, and in 1885 Morris Brown was opened to students; now they have schools at Waco, Tex., Jackson, Miss., Selma, Ala., and elsewhere. At about the same time the Zion Methodist Church moved for the establishment of Livingstone College, which was incorporated in 1879 and began work on its present site at Salisbury in 1882; this church now has other smaller schools also. The Colored Methodist Church, which is closely affiliated with the Southern Methodist Church, projected Lane College, at Jackson, Tenn., in 1878, and in 1882 a building was erected and the school opened; this body now has other schools at Birmingham, Ala., Holly Springs, Miss., and Tyler, Tex. The Colored Baptists have shown similar enterprise, often in cooperation with the Home Mission Society of the Northern Baptists, but particularly through their own conventions.

Location of schools.—There is a good deal of significance in the location of these various schools for secondary and advanced instruction. Observers now are surprised at the manner of their distribution through the country. Some are found in parts where

¹ For a discussion of the present work of these boards, see p. 150.

the colored people are comparatively few, while in another region where the people are nearly all Negroes there are practically no schools of any kind. What is the reason for such an unfortunate distribution? The reason is this: When the schools were started, the main question was not so much where the founder would like to go, as where he could go. Occasionally the mistake was made of planting a school where it was not wanted, where hostile eyes were on it from the start and hostile hands waited for the chance to root it out; but usually the choice was wiser. Most of the more important schools were placed where there was a distinct call for them. A friendly feeling toward them was shown by the influential white people of the neighborhood, at least a tolerant disposition; and colored people of more than ordinary intelligence came forward and eagerly urged the advantages and claims of their particular community. Not only does a good school bring prosperity to the community, but a good community brings prosperity to the school. We have always known this about white schools; it is just the same in the story of Negro schools.

Many of these schools are in places that were centers of educational influence under the old system of things, and long before they were ever thought of. They were planted in a prepared soil, with a congenial atmosphere, and this accounts largely for their healthy growth and present strength. Glance at some of these old educational centers, famous long ago for the academy or college to which came the sons and daughters of wealthy planters and business men, lawyers, ministers, and physicians of the old South; and which were large-minded enough to welcome into their neighborhood the schools intended for the aspiring children of their former slaves. Washington was such a center, and now it has Howard University; Richmond, Petersburg, and Lynchburg were such centers in Virginia, and each of them now has one or more influential schools for the colored people; the same is true of Raleigh, Greensboro, Winston-Salem, and Charlotte in North Carolina; so of Columbia and Charleston, S. C.; Augusta, Athens, Atlanta, and Macon, Ga.; Lexington, Ky.; Nashville, Knoxville, and Jackson, Tenn.; Talladega, Marion, Tuscaloosa, Athens, Florence, Tuskegee, and Huntsville, Ala.; Holly Springs, Jackson, and Natchez, Miss.; New Orleans, La.; Little Rock, Ark.; Austin and Waco, Tex. A college or boarding school liberalizes the community where it stands. The atmosphere of sound learning is hospitable to worthy endeavor even when it runs across the grain of traditional practice. The young people of such a place acquire more or less of the educational spirit. The servants are affected by it; the janitors who look after the buildings, the waiters who serve at a commencement banquet, the housemaids in every professor's house where distinguished men of learning are entertained from time to time, get the ideas that are ruling all about them. In such intellectual centers, therefore, schools for the colored people took root most readily, and grew more vigorously than among different surroundings.

And the sort of school it had to be was pretty much determined by these antecedent circumstances; it had to be such a school as the people were used to. The schools that were wanted were of the usual kind, such as were seen all over the South as well as throughout the North, with the ordinary readers, spellers, arithmetics, and geographies. It has become the fashion to disparage these old schools and their simple methods; but 50 years ago people in the United States knew nothing about any others.

After all it may well be questioned whether the particular method is of so vital consequence. The essential thing then was some sort of school with some method and with a live, intelligent teacher to put into it the power of a noble character. What needed most to be learned was obedience, order, neatness, thoroughness; the aptitude for study, for fastening the mind upon a subject and keeping at it till the lesson was mastered. These children needed to get the habit of intellectual industry to go with them, as long as they should live. Such results are borne in upon the pupil's character by the inspiration of a winning, forceful teacher more than by all the devices of pedagogy. And the fitness of these schools for the exigency which brought them into existence is to be judged, not by their correspondence to any models we may set up 50 years afterwards, but by what they have done in their own time for the men and women who have attended their courses and gone out from them to be teachers, writers, and speakers; leaders of thought and molders of opinion among their people bewildered with the new manner of life and the new duties that had so suddenly fallen to them.

EDUCATIONAL FUNDS.

Several funds have been put in the hands of trustees with the purpose that the income accruing may be appropriated year by year to aid in this work. A fund of some significance was established in 1850 by John McDonough, a wealthy slaveholder of New Orleans, with the design of colonizing Negroes in Africa. He had given his own slaves a special training to fit them for usefulness in the new colony, and in his will he directed that an annuity of \$25,000 be provided for a continuance of the work. This provision was ruled out by the court, and instead the gross sum of \$100,000 was paid over to the American Colonization Society. Another large amount went to the cities of Baltimore and New Orleans for the education of poor children. The public schools of New Orleans are still receiving some income from this source and a share goes to schools for Negroes. In 1867 George Peabody instituted the fund called by his name with the intent of aiding the education of all the people in the Southern States. At the time, the public-school system was in the formative stage and the practice of separate schools for the children of the two races had not arisen. When the double system became established, the larger part of the income was applied to the education of white children, though some of it was used for training Negroes to become teachers. The John F. Slater fund was established in 1882 and its entire income was to go for the education of the colored people. It was the same with the Daniel Hand fund entrusted to the American Missionary Association in 1888. So it also was with the Negro rural school fund, instituted in 1907 by Anna T. Jeanes, of Philadelphia, and the Phelps-Stokes fund in 1909 given partly for the educational improvement of the Negroes. Other smaller funds of like purpose need not be mentioned here.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

One of the impressive developments in this story of education for the colored people has been that of manual training and industrial instruction. The source of this development has been to a large extent the Hampton Institute and its gifted founder, Gen. Samuel Chapman Armstrong. In his early home in Hawaii, Armstrong became familiar with this method of teaching, followed by his missionary father in his endeavors for the improvement of the native islanders there, and he early saw its applicability to the

freedmen who came under his oversight, first as soldiers under his command and later as students in the school which he founded. His methods early found favor, especially with many business men in the North, and with a number of leading white men in the South who were greatly interested in Negro education. Among the latter, Dr. William H. Ruffner, the State superintendent of public instruction in Virginia, was deeply impressed with their value and actively used his great influence to forward the interests of the school. In the field at large, however, little thought was bestowed on industrial education before 1880. Dr. Barnas Sears, in all his great ministry of 12 years with the Peabody Fund, was occupied with the conventional type of education, especially with the literary training of teachers, and his reports from year to year make no mention of industrial training. In many of the schools taught by northern teachers, a good deal of practical instruction was given in personal neatness and general efficiency, including lessons in sewing, cooking, and the proper care of their homes; but this was not brought to the front as belonging to their education. But in 1881, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, who succeeded Dr. Sears as agent of the Peabody Fund, in his first report, calls particular attention to Hampton Institute and quotes Dr. Ruffner as pronouncing it "the most valuable of all the schools opened on this continent for colored people." In the following year the Slater Fund was established, and while the founder of this fund in his statement of its purposes dwells on instruction "in the common branches of secular learning, associated with training in just notions of duty toward God and man" and on "the training of teachers from among the people requiring to be taught," making no allusion to industrial features; when the Slater Fund board on October, 1882, drew up resolutions on the course they should follow, one of them was as follows:

That so far as practicable the scholars receiving the benefit of this foundation shall be trained in some manual occupation, simultaneously with their mental and moral instruction.

This was in effect an adoption of Armstrong's methods to become the policy of the fund.

The general agent of the fund, Dr. Atticus G. Haygood, of Georgia, heartily entered into this policy. In his first report in 1883, he speaks as follows:

Investigation shows that only a small number of the higher grade schools for colored youth have made any experiments in connecting handicraft training with instruction in books. With the work done by Hampton Institute under the direction of Gen. Armstrong, the board is familiar. It is proper to say that some of the most experienced workers in this field are not convinced of the wisdom of making industrial training an important feature in their plans and efforts. Many equally experienced entertain no doubts on this subject. They believe that industrial training is not only desirable as affording the means of making a more self-reliant and self-supporting population, but necessary as furnishing some of the conditions of the best intellectual and moral discipline of the colored people—especially of those who are to be the teachers and guides of their people. In this opinion your agent entirely concurs.

Two years later, in 1885, Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, the president of Johns Hopkins University and the secretary of the Slater Fund board, presented the following statement as embodying suggestions made by several members:

The subject of manual training in connection with mental discipline is so important, so specific, and so difficult, that it requires very careful attention. A great amount of experience has been acquired upon this subject in different cities of this country and abroad, which ought to be brought together. There is a great diversity of opinion as to the methods which should be employed. Having given emphasis to manual training in their previous action, the trustees should now take measures to explain what they think is feasible among the schools for freedmen.

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In 1886, four years after the establishment of the Slater Fund, Dr. Haygood refers to the subject again in these words:

The Slater Fund has set forward incalculably the cause of industrial education in the best schools for colored people in the South. When the work of this board began, few schools gave it any place in their system; now there are few that do not give it place. There is more kindly feeling among southern white people toward these schools than heretofore, and the influence of the Slater Fund has helped much in bringing about this better state of things.

Dr. Haygood was agent of this fund for nine years, till 1891, when he resigned to become a bishop of the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church. Some of his reflections in closing this work are interesting in their bearings upon the growth of industrial education during these years:

Within a few days after entering upon the work of my agency, I visited Mr. Slater at his home in Norwich, and in long and painstaking interviews with him sought to find out just what his conceptions of the uses of his foundation were. What I know to have been his wish I have kept steadily in view during the nine years of my agency; at the same time seeking to the best of my ability to observe the general instructions of the board of trustees. * * *

As a general principle I have not encouraged the use of machinery, except of the simpler kinds. Training in the use of hand tools is more educative, useful to larger numbers, and less costly. Comparatively small sums appropriated to the different schools made industrial training available to a large number of students. Besides, mastery in the use of hand tools is, at this time and under the conditions surrounding the Negro race, more useful to the masses of them than the knowledge of machinery. I wish to add at this point the expression of my opinion on two points of practical moment. I believe that relatively larger returns, in manual training, have come from comparatively small appropriations; and I am entirely convinced that we can not make industrial training self-sustaining without sinking to a hurtful degree the educative part of the work in the effort to secure profits.

During the nine years here referred to, public opinion both North and South went through a great change in the way of more comprehensive views of education. Dr. Haygood reflected convictions that were widely accepted. In 1881, Booker T. Washington started his school at Tuskegee and the growth of that school was both a cause and consequence of the increased interest in industrial education. Projected by a man who had acquired his education at Hampton and become imbued with its ideas, Tuskegee Institute undertook to apply its lessons in the heart of Alabama, where most of the people were Negroes and only a few of these were able to read. He was wise enough to keep in close communication with Hampton and its management, to look for encouragement to the generous supporters of that institution, and to draw revenues from the same sources of maintenance; he was also able enough to handle the enterprise, to conquer opposition, and overcome obstacles that would have disheartened an ordinary man; and he had so happy a gift of conciliation as to win the friendship and admiration of the southern white people whenever the opportunity could be found, and to gain from them a moral support that was worth more than money to his work. Thus, in the course of time, Booker T. Washington's school became as famous as Hampton, acquired a property of about the same value, and became the recipient of an equal revenue. A score of other industrial schools have been successful, acquiring a good deal of property and gaining revenues for maintenance so ample as to indicate a partiality of donors in the North for schools of this order.

FEDERAL LAND-GRANT SCHOOLS.

The development of the land-grant schools for Negroes is closely connected with the extension of industrial education.

The Morrill fund, established in 1862, undertook to provide for the maintenance of an agricultural and mechanical college in each of the several States. The institutions were practically all for the white youth of the land. In 1890 it was further enacted that each State should receive an additional sum of \$15,000, with an annual increase of \$1,000 until the appropriation should be \$25,000. This act specified that the colored people of each State should have their equitable proportion. The result of this act was the organization of a separate school for Negroes in each of the 17 Southern States. It was provided that none of this money could be used for building purposes. To secure the appropriation, therefore, a State was under the necessity of making additional appropriations from its own resources. Each institution is maintained partly by the United States Government, and partly by the government of the individual State, thus insuring a financial stability much greater than most schools had heretofore enjoyed.

Under the act of 1862 schools were started in the several Southern States and were most of them open for classes about 1872. These have developed into large and flourishing institutions for the instruction of white youth in agriculture and the mechanic arts. In three States a part of the grant was early applied to the benefit of Negroes. In Virginia a third of the grant went to Hampton Institute; in South Carolina a portion went to Claflin; and in Mississippi Alcorn was made accessible to both white and colored, with the result that by 1876 it was reported to be "practically for the colored alone." Hampton's whole plan was in perfect accord with the purpose of the grant and was ready for it in 1870; the amount annually received was some \$12,000 or more, which became a strong reinforcement to its natural growth. At Claflin the grant was applied to the building up of an industrial department which has had an honorable history. Alcorn was not so fortunate, reporting two teachers and 41 students in 1876 and two teachers with only 17 students in 1877, illustrating the truth that something more than an assured income is requisite for a school's prosperity. With the passing of the years, however, this institution has come to have an important place in the educational work of the State.

The Congressional act of 1890, while adding to the resources of all these schools, took particular care to provide for the Negroes of every State. Consequently, within the two or three years following, many new institutions of this kind were started especially for colored students; in 1893 such schools were reported at Normal, Ala., Pine Bluff, Ark., Tallahassee, Fla., Savannah, Ga., Frankfort, Ky., New Orleans, La.; Jefferson City, Mo., Greensboro, N. C., Prairie View, Tex.; and Institute, W. Va. In Tennessee, Knoxville College was made recipient of the grant and added an industrial department to its literary course. In South Carolina, an industrial college was established at Orangeburg and received the funds that had been handled by Claflin up to that time. The total income of these grants in that year was \$128,349, to which were added the State appropriations and gifts from other sources till the entire expenditures amounted to \$349,580. This was for 14 schools.

The generosity of these provisions may be better understood by a comparison with the cost of maintaining other schools for the colored people. In that same year the

appropriations of the American Missionary Association for 20 of its largest colored schools, including Fisk, Talladega, Tougaloo, and Straight, with an enrollment of 6,931 students, were \$175,607; and the similar schools maintained by other boards, the Presbyterian, the Methodist, and the Baptist, were maintained at a cost that was certainly no larger. These land-grant schools, then, had a considerable financial advantage over all the old schools from the very start.

That advantage did not lessen with the passing of time. With each successive year they had more money; they could improve their property, add to their buildings and equipment, and lay out a little larger plan. In 1907 Congress made a fresh grant, which gave all these schools another lift. So, by the report of 1914, we find 17 of these land-grant schools, in as many different States, having an income from the grants of \$281,030; from the States, \$368,487; and enough from other sources to make a total of \$1,091,633; also that they employ 521 teachers, of whom 315 are men and 196 women; while their student body consists of 9,251, of whom 4,220 are male and 5,031 female. A growth like this in so few years is most significant.

Foremost among them, and holding a place all its own, is Hampton Institute. The first colored school to profit by the Morrill Fund, it became in due time an extraordinary interpretation of its usefulness. Steadily, since 1870, with an effectiveness that has increased from year to year, it has shown the educative possibilities of agricultural and manufacturing pursuits. And in doing so it has found the course of prosperity, attracting to itself enthusiastic supporters from many quarters, and deriving materials for maintenance from innumerable sources. It has also brought about a marked change in the prevalent opinion concerning the sort of education best adapted to the great majority of the colored people at the present time. It has strengthened faith in the land-grant schools for Negroes throughout the country; and besides this has magnified the general utility of industrial training. This has influenced the courses of instruction in most of the more important institutions and led to the starting of many new schools on the industrial plan.

PUBLIC SCHOOL FACILITIES.

The public-school system inaugurated for white and colored youth in all the Southern States after the war was slower than its projectors hoped in bringing to pass the great results of popular education for which it was designed. The old private schools and colleges, for white youth, as many of them as were able after the four years of disaster, took up their tasks anew and continued their opportunities of learning and culture for the well-to-do, who could afford the expense involved. But the new exigencies of the hour called for universal education; and this at once. There was not time for a natural, orderly growth. It had to be set up as best it could be out of hand, in any way that looked possible and with whatever materials could be found.

Dr. Curry, speaking at Capon Springs in 1899, used the following words:

It must be borne in mind that under the ancient régime no public-school system providing universal education existed at the South. There was no system adequate even to the education at public expense of the white youth. Our peculiar social system forbade the education of the Negroes. That obviously would have been impossible and dangerous. In the course of a few years systems for both races were established. The difficulties were very great. Population was sparse, roads were bad, schoolhouses did not exist, there was an absolute want of acquaintance with the machinery of public schools, no sufficient supply of competent teachers was to be had, and weighing down all spirit of hopeful progress

was the dreary poverty of the taxpayer * * *. Despite the environment and the hopelessness of the outlook, there were a few who felt that the salvation of the South, the recovery of its lost prestige, depended on universal education. They felt that no better service could be rendered to the country and the great problems which embarrassed or darkened action than a scheme of applying systems, tried and known elsewhere, to the renaissance of the South. Therefore, with hope and courage amid the gloom of disappointment and poverty and despair, the pressure of adverse circumstances, and the struggle for subsistence, they advocated and secured the incorporation into organic law of general education as the only measure which promised to lift up the lately servile race and restore the white people to their former prosperity.

Dr. Curry's remark, "No sufficient supply of competent teachers was to be had," goes to the heart of the difficulty encountered in trying to build up the new system of public schools. It was a difficulty that Government appropriations could not reach and in the presence of which legislation was almost helpless. It was thought to meet the great emergency by "National aid to public schools," and the famous Blair bill was battled over in Congress one session after another. People could not understand why so many southern statesmen fought this bill with an almost furious opposition, while others defended and worked for it with a vehemence equally earnest. The measure proposed an appropriation of \$77,000,000, to be applied in annual installments, for a stated period, to provide school privileges for the neglected children of the Nation. It was expected that the southern people would be the chief beneficiaries of the fund and it would have undoubtedly been established if the southern sentiment had been universally favorable. The bill was defeated by opposition from this quarter. Some of the most high-minded southern people looked upon it as a menace to civic virtue and likely to do more harm than good. On this account we may well doubt whether it would have been effective for the purpose in mind. It could have built schoolhouses, increased the pay of school officers and teachers, and put money into many waiting pockets; but this might not have cultivated to any great extent the essential educational spirit; and certainly it could not have made inspiring teachers.

The traditions of the southern people, excepting in North Carolina, were against free schools, even for white children. They held that parents should provide for their own households, for their education the same as for clothes and food, and that a tax for the education of another man's family is a gross wrong. Attempts were sometimes made to provide schools for poor children by the gifts of generous friends and by public funds; but in such cases the implication of poverty put the schools almost on a level with the almshouse and kept them from being patronized by those who needed them most.

The changes brought about by the war led to a new attitude toward the teacher's calling and a new interest in the training of teachers. When the public schools were opened under the Freedmen's Bureau, opportunity was offered to intelligent men and women to take the positions of instruction in them. It was a chance for earning something that not a few southern people, in their straitened circumstances, were glad to accept. So it came to pass that many of the teachers in the public schools for Negroes were from southern white families, a practice that was long continued in a number of cities and that is still followed in the public schools of Charleston. With the development of the double system of public schools, those for white children made a special demand on the people who were qualified to be their teachers, and the schools for Negroes passed more and more into the hands of Negro teachers.

An unfortunate consequence of giving up the Negro schools to Negro teachers was a diminished interest in them on the part of the influential people of the community. While white teachers were in their management they themselves often became deeply interested in the children under their care and ambitious for the prosperity of the school; and having considerable influence abroad in the community and among the men in control of affairs, they were able to secure more favorable attention than would be given to Negro teachers. The schools under Negro teachers had no effective advocates, and so they were constant losers. They became the prey of unscrupulous politicians and the mark of bitter prejudice. They were discriminated against in the distribution of school funds; their schoolhouses were given no proper attention, so that they became shabby and unfit to occupy; and, worst of all, corruption entered into the appointment of the Negro teachers. The amazing contrast between the public schools for white children and those provided for Negroes in nearly all parts of the South tells the story of this misfortune. Charleston, however, has another account to give; the school buildings for colored children compare favorably with those for white children¹ and the colored schools have an equitable share of the school funds; their teachers are chosen with reference to their qualifications and have the advantage of association on equal terms with all other teachers of the city. If the employment of white teachers is chargeable with a certain unfairness to some who are competent among the colored people, it seems to be an effective safeguard against the more disastrous unfairness which has befallen a great many other public schools.

The disappearance of that old antipathy to free schools, with the prevalent unpopularity of the teacher's occupation, and the establishment on solid foundations throughout the South of a system of free public schools, governed by chosen teachers and maintained by the State, tells of a revolution in popular opinion with which it is not easy to find a parallel. Incomplete as are the outworkings of the system, inferior as are a great many of the schools, imperfectly qualified as are not a few of the teachers now employed, there is vast significance in the beginnings made—in the standards of achievement that have been set up. The very conception of a people whose children are to grow up under the intellectual, moral, and spiritual discipline of appointed schools in the hands of carefully trained teachers worthy of so great a trust constitutes an outlook on the future that promises more than one can think. In such a conception there is an emancipation of the mind which is a fitting sequel to the passing away of the outworn usages of an older time; and those who belong to the new day are in a world of enlarged privileges with unbounded possibilities of achievement. The youth in these schools to-day are the promise of better teachers, better schools, and a multiplying host of pupils to-morrow; the hope of a clearer intelligence, a finer social spirit, and a sounder national life.

COOPERATION BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH.

A serious hindrance to the best development of all this endeavor, whether in school or church, has been the prevalent misunderstanding between the old friends of the colored people in the South and their new friends in the North. This misunderstanding was inherent in the situation and inevitable in the very nature of things. But it was no less damaging for all this.

¹ This now applies, as to buildings, to several other cities.

What could be more pathetic? Here were these poor people suddenly torn out of the state in which they had always lived and made to take not only the privileges but the responsibilities of American citizenship. And for their introduction to this new heritage strangers came to show them the way; kind and generous guides undoubtedly, but strangers nevertheless; and coming from a far distance, from communities unlike theirs, with usages and ways such as they had never known. And all about them they still saw their old friends, the people who had brought them up and with whom they had always lived; interested in them, too, as before, and wishing them well in the untried venture they were entering on. But between the old friends and the new there could be found no common ground. They had been on opposite sides in a terrible war four years long and growing in bitterness to the end. How was it possible for these old guardians of the slaves to welcome on their errand these new teachers of the freedmen? And how was it possible for these teachers, bent on their message of enlightenment to a people brought out of bondage, to appreciate the better and gentler aspects of the hard system that had gone down in fire and blood?

If at the outset the genuine Christian people on both sides could have forgotten for a time their differences and drawn together in mutual confidence to talk over practical questions bearing on the work in hand, doubtless many bitteresses would have grown less bitter; many unhappy mistakes have been avoided; many extravagances have been saved; and perhaps the colored people as a whole would have made far greater progress in the best enlightenment even than the wonderful progress they have made.

But so great a reconciliation takes time. Misunderstandings can be removed when people set about it with a will, though not in a day or a year. The people of the reunited States did set about this undertaking as soon as the war was over. In the passage between Gen. Grant and Gen. Lee at Appomattox there were conciliatory aspects. In President Lincoln's Gettysburg oration and in his whole attitude there was the very spirit of conciliation; and as the people of the North and the South met, passed, and saw one another in the ordinary affairs of life, the war feeling, little by little, gave place to something gentler and happier. Business dealings worked swiftly to this end. Buying and selling, cash and credit, and bills of exchange could harbor no enmities. The quiet army of drummers, as a great Southern leader once remarked, were missionaries of a better time. Literature also played no mean part; Southern writers and Northern writers sent their articles to the same magazines; and readers all over the land, taking the same papers, adjusted their thinking to common standards and became better acquainted.

Southern men.—Certain illustrious individuals have stood forth as conspicuous examples, true apostles in this ministry of reconciliation. Of these one of the foremost was Dr. Atticus G. Haygood, a preacher and author of distinction in the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church. In 1881 he published a little book entitled "Our Brother in Black," which gave expression to the best Christian sentiment of the South concerning the white people's duties toward their Negro neighbors. It dwelt upon the human claims of the neglected colored people on the sympathy and helpful kindness of all who were more fortunate, especially those who called themselves the followers of Jesus Christ. No voice of this tenor had been heard from the South for many long years. It had in it

the ring of the Southern philanthropists of the early years of the Republic and of those who had so ardently thrown themselves into the cause of African colonization. It came at an opportune time, when the animosities of the great struggle were beginning to soften and saner thoughts were coming to prevail in the North and South alike; and it thrilled the North with glad surprise. The book was read by the more thoughtful people all over the North and revealed to them the heart of the South as they had not known it before.

At just this time the Slater Fund was established in behalf of the Negroes of the South. It was natural that such a man should be invited to undertake the practical application of the fund to the purposes for which it was designed. In this position Dr. Haygood was brought into intimate association with many influential people in the North and was made acquainted with the sentiment that had actuated the whole movement for the improvement of the freedmen; and at the same time he was able to acquaint them with the attitude of the Christian people of the South in a way that confirmed the impressions conveyed by his book. It became his official duty to visit the schools for colored people maintained by northern organizations in all parts of the South and to report to the Slater board his impressions of their worthiness or unworthiness of assistance from the fund. This was of inestimable value to the schools. He observed their operations from a southern point of view; not merely from his own personal viewpoint, but that of the better southern people as he had known it by life-long familiarity. He saw a great many of these schools, all the way from Washington to Texas; he visited them again and again through the nine years of his official connection with the fund. He studied the schools assiduously and sympathetically. He came to the teachers as a friend and counselor; and as they were far from their homes, among strangers who often were unsympathetic, and engaged in a service that was full of perplexities, they appreciated his courteous ways and his gentle suggestions; they welcomed his suggestions and were gladdened by his words of commendation; they confided in him; they won his personal esteem; they put in practice the advice he gave; and their teaching, their schools, and they themselves as men and women were made better and happier for the visits of this Christian gentleman.

The significance of his ministry in this field may be more clearly understood by examining the accounts of it which he himself gave, from year to year, in his reports and recommendations to the Slater board, especially that of 1891, at the close of his work for the fund. One or two passages will show the tenor of his thought:

The cause of Negro education I have strenuously pleaded, in speech and in writing, upon every fit occasion. What I could do I have done to encourage and inspire the Negro to the best conceptions of Christian manhood and Christian citizenship; to convince my people, the white people of the South, of the duty and expediency of making the most of their Negro neighbors; to cheer the people of the Northern States in the stupendous work they had undertaken, and to win, if possible, their patience with their southern fellow citizens placed in conditions that never before came to any race. Not a little work I endeavored to do in these lines before I had any knowledge that there was to be a Slater fund. Of the truth of what I have tried to teach, of the importance and necessity of the Christian education of the Negro race, I am now, at the close of my special ministry in these fields, more convinced than at any time in the past.

In another passage he uses these remarkable words concerning the schools under his oversight :

To me it will be an undying pleasure to recall the years I have spent in trying to help my "brother in black." The effort to help him has been an unspeakable blessing to me. I have friends among them I will love forever. Among the hundreds of teachers whose acquaintance I have formed in visiting the schools I have had duties with are men and women among the very noblest I have ever known. Their consecration has blessed me and their kindness has brought me cheer and comfort. It will be a sort of spiritual instinct with me to pray the blessings of the God and Father of us all upon these chosen and honored servants, my brethren and sisters in the fellowship of the cause of Christ Jesus our Lord.

To these passages may be added another from the pen of Dr. Curry, showing the esteem in which he was held by that great educational statesman of the South :

I know no one for whose judgment and opinions on this subject I have greater respect, and for whose labors in the difficult field where he has wrought, more grateful admiration. He has studied the matter carefully and his work in its far-reaching results is not determinable by overt proofs. He has sown fructiferous seed which, in coming years, will bear abundant and profitable fruitage. He has created a sounder public sentiment at the South and has identified his name imperishably with the grand achievements of the Slater Fund.

Dr. Curry in his own person also exerted a powerful influence in promoting a better mutual understanding between northern people and those of the South. Following Dr. Sears as the agent of the Peabody fund in 1880, at very near the time of Dr. Haygood's coming into notice at the North, he in a similar way came into intimate relations with the distinguished men belonging to the Peabody board and with many others who were influential in the educational world. Before this time, however, he had been known in the North, for he had acquired his professional training in the Harvard Law School and had been a member of Congress from Alabama previous to the secession movement. As a prominent representative of the Southern Confederacy he had been one of the foremost political leaders of the South in the reconstruction period and brought to his office the reputation of a clear-sighted statesman and persuasive orator. In the educational work to which he was called, legislation in the several States was at that time of vital importance, and he played a great part in securing favorable enactments. He exerted no small influence, too, in some of the congressional legislation. He was instrumental in establishing normal schools for the training of teachers in all the Southern States and did far more than can be told to give the public-school system better form and greater solidity. All these activities helped to make him an effective intermediary between the people of the North and those of the Southern Confederacy in whose fortunes he had borne his share.

Northern influence.—At nearly the same time, in 1880, a northern man of some eminence, Dr. Amory Dwight Mayo, began a unique service of inquiry into educational conditions in the South with informing lectures, wherever he went, on improved methods of teaching. He had been a Unitarian minister for some 35 years, had served on boards of education and given a great deal of careful thought to school improvement, and had become widely known in the North as a lecturer and author. So he came to this new ministry with a well-furnished mind and wide experience, and threw himself into it with an ardor and devotion that never paused to the end of his long life, which came in 1907. He was made welcome in schools of all sorts, those for white children equally with those for the colored people. Like Dr. Haygood, he came into friendly acquaint-

ance with a multitude of schools and teachers; with principals, school superintendents, and leaders of thought in all of the Southern States; and then returning to the North, he reported the things he had found, the discussions he had enjoyed, and the conclusions at which he had arrived, in the periodicals to which he had access, in addresses before educational gatherings, where he was always welcome, and in elaborate papers which were published in the Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education.

Meanwhile, and profiting much by the activities of Haygood, Curry, and Mayo, the schools maintained by northern beneficence were many of them gaining in power and in the good will of their neighbors. In their several communities influential southern men began to serve on their boards of management, eminent southern speakers were heard on anniversary occasions, and the broader-minded white people grew to have more interest in the acquisitions of ambitious colored people.

This was especially so with Hampton Institute. Situated in the immediate vicinity of Old Point Comfort, whither visitors resorted for recreation from all parts of the country, and having many unusual features of attractiveness, cultivated people from the South and the North alike found it a delight to go over to the institute; to saunter through the grounds and watch the parades; to look into the classrooms and listen to recitations; to see the processes of industrial instruction and examine the exhibitions of products. Of course, southerners and northerners mingled together there in an easy-going way and talked over everything they saw and heard, which led along to free discussions of educational and national subjects of wider significance.

The winter experiences of northern sojourners in many southern resorts resulted in similar interchanges of thought; and the attendance of southern people at national educational association meetings, at Chautauqua assemblies, at summer schools, and in the numerous summer resorts of New England, the Adirondacks, and the region of the Great Lakes, worked quietly on toward a mutual adjustment of differences that had once seemed irreconcilable.

Southern conferences.—It was only natural that this growing spirit of accord should eventually ripen into some organized movement. There was an approach to this in the Capon Springs conference of 1898. That gathering was suggested by the Lake Mohonk conferences instituted by Mr. Albert K. Smiley in behalf of the Indians. The Capon Springs meeting was in behalf of education in the South, and was attended by invited guests from both the North and South who were known to be personally interested in southern schools for all classes of people. That meeting was followed by a second at the same spot in 1899 and by a third in 1900. Capon Springs is a secluded valley in the mountains of West Virginia, reached with some difficulty, part of the journey being by stage coach. The meetings were small, only about 70 being present at the largest of the three; but they were significant, and the papers and addresses were given wide publicity through the press and the published Proceedings.

The fourth conference, in 1901, was at Winston-Salem, N. C., and marked a distinct advance. The point at which it assembled was more central and more accessible. Pains had been taken to interest representative people throughout the South, not only by advertising and correspondence, but by personal visits from the agent of the conference, who explained its purpose and urged attendance. To make certain of a good party of northern people, Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of New York, secured ample railroad accommo-

dations and invited a considerable number of carefully selected men and women to go with him as his guests on an excursion to educational institutions in the South and to take this meeting on the way. Thus it came about that the gathering was somewhat unusual. In fact, it was a convocation of well-known educational thinkers, from the South and the North alike, met with unity of purpose to talk on the most vital themes and to devise measures for effective cooperation. At the conclusion of a series of inspiring sessions, which brought out the conviction that the hour had come for definite action, it was resolved with one voice:

To organize by the appointment of an executive board of seven, who shall be fully authorized and empowered to conduct:

1. A campaign of education for free schools for all the people, by supplying literature to the newspaper and periodical press, by participation in educational meetings, and by general correspondence; and,
2. To conduct a bureau of information and advice on legislation and school organization.

It was further ordered that the chairman, Mr. Ogden, be authorized to select the board and that he "be made an eighth member of this committee."

In this manner the Southern Education Board was brought into existence and started on that course of fruitful endeavors with which thenceforth it was regularly identified.

The fifth conference, in 1902, which met at Athens, Ga., the seat of the State University, was even more remarkable than the fourth for a large and representative attendance from both the South and the North and for the fraternal concord and singleness of purpose that animated all that was said and done. This and the others which followed, at Richmond, Birmingham, Columbia, Lexington, Pinehurst, Memphis, Atlanta, Little Rock, Jacksonville, and Nashville, were marked by the same spirit and a sustained ardor worthy of the enterprise for which they were convened. In these meetings the North and the South forgot their differences and came together in the interest of a larger enlightenment and higher privileges for all the people. They afforded a forum for the discussion of a hundred vital questions and headquarters for directing a network of efficient educational forces that extended to a dozen great States. They called together a host of fine, diligent toilers and made them touch hands with a multitude of others in like circumstances, so as to be stirred with the warmth of fellowship and made strong with the sense of belonging to a host bent upon inspiring conquests. Within the fifteen or more years covered by this series of conferences great changes have been wrought in the whole life of the South, in its industrial and business enterprises as well as in the things that relate more directly to schools, and, while many other things have entered into the development, these meetings have had an influence of no inconsiderable moment.

The beneficent effects of these conferences, however, are more apparent in what they have done for the white people than in advantages accruing to the Negroes. Indeed there are those who question whether they have been of any advantage whatever to the colored people and to the schools maintained in their behalf, claiming, on the contrary, that the gains to the white people have reacted unfavorably for the Negroes. To which it may be replied that a movement of such manifest value to education in general can not fail to have reached all the people with beneficent consequences, even though they have not always fulfilled the cherished expectation.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

RECENT MOVEMENTS.

All the facts in this report are in a sense a record of recent movements in the education of Negroes in the United States. Each chapter contains statements of the educational policies and methods adopted by public and private agencies in the various geographical units of the country. Special consideration is given to these movements in the closing sections of the first chapter of this volume and in the "summary" chapter of Volume II. Notable results are the increasing cooperation of educational funds and church boards with each other and the correlation of their efforts with those of the public-school authorities.

FREEDMEN'S AID SOCIETIES, 1861-1871.

By JULIUS H. PARMELEE.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

What to do with the Negroes who appeared within Union lines became a grave question at the very commencement of the Civil War. These blacks either came into the Federal camps or were found on abandoned plantations which the northern armies took into their possession. In either case the Negro came under Union jurisdiction helpless, frightened, and destitute.

In May, 1861, Gen. Benjamin F. Butler of the Department of Virginia declared slaves who came into his camp "contraband of war," employed the able-bodied men in building fortifications, and paid them in food and supplies. The number of these "contrabands" grew rapidly. At Fortress Monroe, Va., a settlement of Negroes sprang up, supervision over whom was intrusted (Nov. 30, 1861) by Secretary of War Chase to Edward L. Pierce of Boston.

Gen. Sherman and Commodore Dupont captured Port Royal and the Sea Islands, South Carolina, in November, 1861, and being informed of the condition of the coast blacks by Rev. Mansfield French, Government agent for Negro inspection, "promptly appealed to Government and philanthropists for rations, clothing, and teachers for the 'hordes of uneducated, ignorant, improvident blacks' left on plantations and abandoned to the chances of anarchy and starvation.'" This appeal was strongly supplemented by calls from Messrs. Pierce and French.

One result was the organization of northern societies to shoulder the economic burden of the southern black. The American Missionary Association, which had already done anti-slavery work in the South, responded to appeals from Gen. Butler and Mr. Pierce before the close of 1861, sending representatives into Virginia to give religious and secular instruction and to distribute clothing. Close on the heels of the American Missionary Association followed workers from societies newly organized to aid the blacks: The Boston Educational Commission, National Freedmen's Relief Association of New York, Port Royal Relief Committee of Philadelphia, the Friends of New York and Philadelphia, and many smaller organizations throughout New England and the Middle West. The first six months showed 70 men and 16 women on the field, representing a number of societies. The central societies were branching meanwhile

¹ Paul B. Peck: *The Freedmen's Bureau*, page 1.

into the smaller cities and towns of the North; organizing locals and auxiliaries and systematizing both the collection and the distribution of money and supplies.

While the general plans of the early associations were vague at the start, the first duty confronting workers who went South was to relieve physical suffering among the wretched blacks of the contraband camps and settlements. Their second thought was for education, and a call for books and school materials soon made itself heard, turning the energies of the associations largely into educational channels.

The first society established primarily for freedmen's aid was the Boston Educational Commission, later called the New England Freedmen's Aid Society. This society was organized at Boston on February 4, 1862, with the purpose avowed in its constitution of effecting "the industrial, social, intellectual, moral and religious improvement" of the freed blacks. This society, supported mainly by residents of Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine, carried on work till 1874, after many of the other societies had retired from the field.

New York was not far behind Boston. The National Freedmen's Relief Association of New York came into being February 22, 1862. Like the New England society, its membership covered more than one State—mainly New York, Connecticut, Maine, and New Hampshire.

The Boston and New York societies were followed in March, 1862, by the Port Royal Relief Committee of Philadelphia, afterwards known as the Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association. Later in 1862 societies were organized in the District of Columbia and Ohio. Still later organizations were formed throughout the Middle West, independent State associations sprang up in Rhode Island, Maine, and New Hampshire, and considerable interest was aroused even in Europe.

These associations arose spontaneously at different points, and it was natural that there should have been lack of coordination in choice of field and purpose that led at times to petty jealousies and strained relations. The movement for some form of cooperation was consequently an early one. In 1862 representatives from Boston, New York, and Philadelphia met to discuss union, but nothing definite was done till the end of 1863, when there was organized at Washington the United States Commission for the Relief of the National Freedmen. This was a combination or confederation of the five leading societies, namely the Boston, New York, and Philadelphia societies, the Western Freedmen's Aid Commission of Cincinnati, and the Northwestern Freedmen's Aid Commission of Chicago.¹ The United States Commission aimed, according to its constitution, to promote efficiency "in supplying the immediate and pressing physical wants of the freed people, in providing for them homes and employment, in organizing them into communities, and in furnishing them with such instruction as their case demands to prepare them for the privileges and duties of Christian freemen." The first meeting of the commission was held in Washington in February, 1864, when resolutions were passed asking the President to give the freedmen "a legal and quiet possession of adequate land for their residence and support, as rapidly and as early as possible."²

¹ Even as late as 1864 it seems probable that harmony did not always prevail among the societies. Thus we find the United States Commission in that year urging on its constituent societies the necessity of immediate, organized and harmonious action in collecting funds and pushing work forward. Two years later the New York Society advocated concentration of effort, and suggested that the various associations agree on strategic points for occupation in common, the remaining territory to be divided in such a way as to avoid duplication of effort.

² New England Freedmen's Aid Society: 2d Annual Report, 1864, page 9.

The United States Commission was displaced in March, 1865, by the American Freedmen's Aid Union, organized in New York City and composed of the Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore societies. This union aimed to assist the freedman in his struggle upward from slavery and to fit him in every way for freedom. Means to this end were stated to be:

1. Physical relief.
2. Rudimentary schooling.
3. Support of all measures and institutions that aimed at helping the colored man.

The rights of the constituent societies were to be fully respected, while friendly relations with all other associations were to be maintained. The union proposed to establish a paper and to provide all necessary general agents. The board of managers was made up of three delegates from each constituent society. At the first regular meeting of the union, May 9, 1865, the New York Society came into affiliation.

Later in 1865, the American Freedmen's Aid Union gave way in turn to the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, which was little more than the Union with the Middle Western societies of Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Chicago added. In announcing its affiliation with the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, the New England Branch, as the society representing that section was now frequently called, expressed its belief and hope that this combination would "simplify, amplify, and energize the great work of elevating the freedman; harmonize the action of all the instrumentalities employed for that end; purify each and all from even the suspicion of sectarianism or partisanship; appeal more strongly to the respect and support of benevolent people both at home and abroad; command greater influence with the Government, and meet with less opposition at the South, than any one of the societies composing it."⁽¹⁾

Each constituent society or branch retained such independence as would not conflict with the foregoing purposes; officers, rules, methods of work, plans of organization, and relations with auxiliaries were all regulated by each society for itself. Two departments were organized—eastern and western—each independent as to the collection of goods and money and the management of teachers. The eastern department in effect replaced the American Freedmen's Aid Union, while the western department succeeded the united Western (Cincinnati) and North Western (Chicago) Freedmen's Aid Commissions. Teachers were accredited in the name of the commission as a whole, while each department accounted to the commission's general treasurer for money and goods received. Among the officers and members of the commission were William Lloyd Garrison, vice president; Frederick Law Olmstead, general secretary; John G. Whittier, Francis G. Shaw, and Henry Ward Beecher.

The first regular meeting of the commission was held at Philadelphia in October, 1865. To send at once to the Negroes 2,000 teachers, to prevent ill treatment and oppression of freedmen, and to secure rights of citizenship for the blacks, these were the commission's immediate objects, while the ultimate aim as declared at this meeting was to place the Negroes "in a condition in which further help shall not be needed."² Late in 1865 the commission organized a southern department, designed to come into

¹ Freedmen's Record: Volume I, page 189.

² Freedmen's Record: Volume I, page 190.

touch with southerners who were interested in Negro education and showed themselves sympathetic with the work of the commission.

In November, 1865, a conference was held by representatives of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission and the American Union Commission, to discuss the possibility of federation. The American Union Commission had been organized in 1864, "to aid in the restoration of the Union upon the basis of industry, education, freedom, and Christian morality."¹ It recognized no distinction of caste or color, but more particularly worked for and among the loyal white refugees of the South. Federation was arranged under the name of the American Freedmen's and Union Commission. The joint constitution declared that the object of the commission was "to aid and cooperate with the people of the South, without distinction of race or color, in the improvement of their condition. * * * No schools or supply depots shall be maintained from the benefits of which any person shall be excluded because of color." It was thought by many members of the freedmen's societies that this extension by them of aid to whites would disarm the suspicion entertained by southern whites toward freedmen's aid in general.

Practically all the provisions of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission's constitution were retained in that of the American Freedmen's and Union Commission, the relations of the constituent societies to the central organization being of the same character, and a similar division being made into eastern, western, and southern departments. The officers of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission were mostly held over for the American Freedmen's and Union Commission, except that Lyman Abbott of the American Union Commission became general secretary of the joint body, while Phillips Brooks of the Philadelphia branch, Bellamy Storer of the Cincinnati branch, Edward L. Pierce, and others, were added to the ex officio members of the commission.

At a convention in Cleveland of practically all the freedmen's aid societies, in May, 1866, the name of the American Freedmen's and Union Commission was changed to "American Freedmen's Union Commission," and the motto of "no distinction of race or color" once more was definitely laid down. In April, 1867, this commission represented 10 branch societies, each of which was financially independent. The president in 1867 was Chief Justice Chase of the United States Supreme Court.

That this final union of aims and efforts proved a success is indicated by Gen. Howard's statement that the American Freedmen's Union Commission "has been of essential service in stimulating the efforts of the various societies, while they as branches have acted through the common center with great unanimity."² Other northern writers declare that cooperation under the commission was vigorous, thorough, and effective.

Early in 1869, with peace now fully established, the commission discontinued its activities. Like action was taken by the constituent societies; the New England and Baltimore branches, however, carried on work for some years longer.

¹ Constitution, Art. II. See p. 279.

² O. O. Howard: Report as Commissioner of Freedmen's Bureau, July 1, 1868.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

INDIVIDUAL SOCIETIES.

THE NEW ENGLAND SOCIETY.

The New England Freedmen's Aid Society was the first to organize distinctly for freedmen's aid. Even before the society arose, a Bostonian by the name of Solomon Peck had opened (Jan. 8, 1862) a contraband school at Beaufort, S. C. In response to an appeal from Edward L. Pierce, of Boston, Government agent on the Sea Islands of South Carolina, Revs. Edward Everett Hale and J. M. Manning, of Boston, selected and sent South three teachers, who in February, 1862, settled at Hilton Head, S. C. This first move soon resulted in meetings in Boston, which on February 7, 1862, developed into an organization with a constitution of 14 articles. The object of the Boston Educational Commission, as the new society was at first called, was declared by its constitution to be "the industrial, social, intellectual, moral, and religious improvement of persons released from slavery in the course of the war for the Union." Regular officers, including a bonded treasurer, and committees were provided, while annual membership fees were set at a minimum of \$5. The first president was Gov. John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts, and the secretary Edward Atkinson, while among the vice presidents were Edward Everett Hale and James Freeman Clarke.

The first task of the New England Society was to answer the cry from South Carolina, and on March 3, only 24 days after organization, 31 teachers and agricultural superintendents, 27 of whom were men, sailed from New York for Port Royal. Forty-one more were sent later in the year and were assigned to the Sea Islands, Norfolk, and Washington. Relief was also sent this same year to the West in the vicinity of St. Louis.

The first group of workers, sailing under Mr. Pierce's direction, encountered great confusion in the Sea Islands; they found plantations deserted and the blacks restless and demoralized. Mr. Pierce at once distributed his forces, with injunctions to treat the Negroes kindly and fairly. The northerners settled in the owners' homes on the various plantations and proceeded at once to reorganize labor, establish schools, and introduce new methods of life. The superintendents had charge of from one to five plantations each, with supervision over from 200 to 500 Negroes; they set about to inculcate methods of regular, systematic, and effective labor. Small wages were promised the blacks as an incentive to work.

The results of the agricultural experiments of the first year were declared at the annual meeting of the society in 1863 to be satisfactory. The freedmen had already demonstrated, it was maintained, their capacity for self-support in a condition of freedom, and had shown strong desire for self-advancement in industry. The superintendents of the society were in July, 1863, transferred to the direction of the Department of War, and dropped largely out of the society's employ.

The first groups of workers to go South contained but few who went primarily as teachers. They were assigned to the instruction of the Negroes. As time went on the educational feature came to be almost the whole of the society's work. From the very beginning, however, the teachers were forced by the many conditions of their work to

carry on many activities besides that of instruction. During the first year, for example, they distributed 258 cases of clothing,¹ sent from Boston and valued at \$20,000.

The first annual meeting of the New England Society, in May, 1863, was permeated with a strong sense of satisfaction in the year's work, and with boundless enthusiasm for the future. The blacks had shown not only capacity for work but also eagerness for education; the field of the society's operations was widening, Government and military agencies had proved friendly, and the outlook for future work seemed bright. The cash receipts of the year amounted to \$17,500.

This same spirit appeared at the second annual meeting in April, 1864. The field was still growing under the advance of the Union troops,² relief of refugees was a crying need, instruction of freed blacks was a necessity, while last of all came the duty of "informing the public mind and improving the public sentiment as to the needs, rights, capacities, and dispositions of the freedmen."³ First notice is at this time made of the branch societies, which were supporting 13 out of 30 teachers.

In January, 1865, the society commenced the publication of a monthly journal, the *Freedmen's Record*,⁴ which continued in existence until April, 1874.

By 1865 the field work of the society had been extended as far south as Florida, and the workers were prepared to go wherever needed. The third annual meeting, in April, 1865, was occupied largely with the reports of the teachers' committee and the teachers themselves. Throughout the year the widening educational field was constantly emphasized. Another aim which began at this time to be expressed was that of assisting the Negro into full citizenship.

On January 15, 1866, the society being now affiliated with the American Freedmen's and Union Commission, the following clause was inserted in its constitution:

In the pursuit of this object⁵ no distinction of race or color shall be recognized; and especially shall no school be maintained from which pupils shall be excluded on the ground of such distinction.⁶

The fourth annual meeting of the society was held April 12, 1866. Physical relief and education still formed the two branches of work, although the latter was by far the more important. While great encouragement was gathered from the eagerness and aptitude of the blacks, many obstacles, too, were touched upon—the discontinuance by the Government of free rations and permission to use confiscated houses, the prevalence of high prices, the difficulty of getting school buildings, and the confusion and violence which remained as one legacy of the war. In spite of these obstacles, the reports of the society show the maxima of its history. Receipts for 1865-66 amounted to \$73,500; there were 182 teachers in the field, with 9,649 pupils, enrolled in 79 different schools throughout North and South Carolina, Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, and the District of Columbia. Some 64 branches had assumed the full support of 100 of these teachers,

¹ Many of these garments were made in Boston by poor women, to whom the work was given as a means of respectable self-help. The money thus spent conveyed, therefore, benefits of twofold character.

² The society in 1863-64 maintained workers in North and South Carolina, Virginia, and the District of Columbia.

³ *New England Society*, 3d Annual Report, p. 3.

⁴ This was called "*The Freedmen's Journal*" in its initial number, but the name was changed because of conflict in titles with a publication in New York.

⁵ I. e., "the industrial, social, intellectual, moral, and religious improvement of persons released from slavery, and of other needy persons in the Southern States." The italicized clause is significant.

⁶ *Freedmen's Record*: Volume II, p. 18.

while as many more smaller branches had contributed liberally in the form of cash and supplies.

At the fifth annual meeting, April, 1867, contributions were acknowledged from the Freedmen's Bureau and from the freedmen themselves. Great need of increased funds was reported. During the year 261 packages of clothing and supplies had been sent South, exclusive of shipments by branch societies. Receipts amounted to \$75,778, of which \$64,580 were expended for schools and school supplies, \$749 for clothing and similar supplies, and \$433 for farm implements.

In June, 1867, comes the first hint of retrenchment. It was recognized that many in the North believed the regeneration of the South should be left to the Freedmen's Bureau, to the Peabody trustees, or to the South herself. The society, however, decided to continue work as long as funds were forthcoming from northern contributors.

The sixth annual meeting was held in March, 1868. Receipts for the year had fallen to \$49,120.

Early in 1869 the American Freedmen's Union Commission¹ and the New York Society disbanded, the New York Society turning over its teachers to the New England Society, together with \$3,664 in cash to pay their salaries for the year.

The seventh annual meeting of the New England Society, April, 1869, made the following declaration:

One part of our work we may consider accomplished; we have demonstrated the capacity of the colored race for education. The results attained in the best schools afford no room for a doubt that this race can equal any other under similar conditions in its desire for knowledge and its capacity for acquiring it.²

During the years 1868 and 1869 the receipts of the society fell off considerably. The work in the field, it was reported at the eighth annual meeting, April, 1870, was calling out less enthusiasm in the North than in previous years, but it was considered to be better work, more carefully planned, and more ably executed throughout.

By January, 1871, the consummation of the society's work was seen to be close at hand. Education was soon to be handed over to southern care. The colored people, it was felt, must learn to fight their own battles with political and industrial weapons. In April the tenth annual report showed a further decrease in receipts to \$27,100; the number of branches, which had been steadily dwindling from the figures of 1866 and 1867,³ now numbered but 22.

At the eleventh annual meeting in April, 1872, receipts were reported diminished to \$11,400, while the number of branches had decreased to 10. The force of workers was promptly cut in half. Retrenchment continued in 1872-73 and 1873-74, the receipts of the two years combined amounting to but \$12,700; the number of teachers fell to 10, the scholars to a thousand; the field had shrunk to three States, South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia, and the end of the work was seen to be approaching fast.

The final meeting of the society was held March 20, 1874. The society had now had 12 years of life, during which time it had collected cash to the amount of nearly \$400,000 and supplies valued at \$150,000. An average of 82 teachers had been main-

¹ See preceding section for a history of the various cooperative unions of freedmen's societies, and the connection of the New England Society with each.

² Freedmen's Record: Vol. V, p. 18.

³ See Table C, p. 297, for details.

tained in service. The society had been the first distinct freedmen's aid organization in the field and was the last to leave the work; throughout the whole period it had been a leader among the other societies in the various steps toward union, in the equipment and organization of its schools, and in the administrative efficiency of its force. It was now voted to disband the society, and to intrust its affairs to the teachers' committee, which proposed to continue two normal schools for a time,¹ with occasional aid and encouragement to special schools and teachers.

Political and financial conditions in the South were still felt to be in great confusion, but the problems created by these conditions and the additional vital problem of education must be left for the South to solve for itself, with only such assistance and kindly encouragement as the North might from time to time be permitted to offer.

In retrospect, the aim of the society was felt to have remained constant—

to relieve bodily suffering; to organize industry; give instruction in the rudiments of knowledge, morals, religion, and civilized life; to inform the public of the needs, rights, capacities, and disposition of the freedmen.²

"We may still claim," said the final meeting of the society, "to have been the first and last society to base our work on the broad ground of national secular education, having no sectarian or party interest."³ With this final declaration ringing in their ears, the members of the society adjourned *sine die*.

OTHER INDIVIDUAL SOCIETIES.

The American Missionary Association, although not organized primarily for freedmen's aid, was at the outbreak of war in best position to answer the call of the destitute blacks. Established September 3, 1846, as a protest against the "comparative silence of other missionary societies with regard to slavery,"⁴ the association had carried on undenominational work for 15 years in the South itself, under great difficulties, attempting to rouse southern whites to the evils of slavery. When war was declared, the association led the way in systematic relief and educational work for the blacks, first at Fortress Monroe and Hampton, then at Port Royal. In 1862 the field was enlarged to include Newport News and Washington; in 1863 the whole of Virginia, North and South Carolina (with outposts at St. Louis and Cairo); in 1864, in addition, Florida, Louisiana, and the Mississippi Valley. Before the close of the war, the District of Columbia, southern Mississippi, and Kansas had also come within the range of the association's activities.

By 1866 the association had 353 persons employed in church and school work among the blacks; in 1867, 528 missionaries and teachers; in 1868, 532. Churches were built and planted, revivals were held, graded and normal schools were opened, and physical relief was distributed where needed. Before the war the association had receipts of some \$40,000 yearly. In 1867 this had grown to \$334,500 in cash and clothing to the value of \$90,000.

The American Missionary Association was from the start nonsectarian; in June, 1865, the Congregational churches, and later the Free-Will Baptist, the Wesleyan Methodist, and the Reformed Dutch Church organizations designated it as their agent

¹ At Charlottesville, Va., and Columbus, Ga.

² P. S. Peirce: Op. cit., p. 27.

³ Freedmen's Record: Vol. V, p. 147.

⁴ Howard: Op. cit., p. 68.

in the field. In 1866 the Cincinnati branch of the American Freedmen's Union Commission withdrew from that body and united with the American Missionary Association. The Cleveland branch did the same in 1867, and the Chicago branch in 1868.

The National Freedmen's Relief Association of New York, commonly known as the New York Society, was organized February 22, 1862. It was largely conceived by officers of the American Missionary Association, the treasurer of the latter being the chairman of the organization meeting of the former. The immediate cause of this meeting was Gen. Sherman's appeal in his General Orders No. 9, of February 6, 1862,¹ regarding the destitute freedmen of Fortress Monroe and Port Royal. The stated object of the society was—

with the cooperation of the Federal Government, so far as attainable, the relief and improvement of the freedmen—to teach them civilization and christianity; to imbue them with notions of order, industry, economy, and self-reliance; and to elevate them in the scale of humanity, by inspiring them with self-respect.²

In an elaborate plan for temporary regulation of labor drawn up by the society, it was emphasized that the blacks, being free men, must be treated as such, must earn their own living under careful superintendence and a regular wage system, and must pay for all supplies either in cash or labor.

At the time the New York Society was organized, the Negroes within Union lines were in great destitution, and the Government agencies that were distributing rations reached but part of the sufferers. Wages offered to the blacks by Government officers were small, and the feeling toward them, even in the North, was often far from friendly. To alleviate this state of things, the first party of workers from the society, numbering 20 missionaries and teachers, left New York for Port Royal on March 3, 1862, equipped with clothing, seeds, tools, medicines and the like for the Negroes. Some of these men and women went as volunteers at their own expense. In April and May 93 additional workers were sent out, 74 men and 19 women. The first care of these parties was to relieve suffering and superintend the laborers on the abandoned plantations. This abandoned property was soon turned over to Government auspices, however, leaving education alone as the association's field of work.

The first annual meeting of the New York Society, February 19, 1863, reported great eagerness for learning on the part of the blacks, 3,000 of them being under instruction at Port Royal and on the Sea Islands. The activities of the society were confined mainly to the Atlantic coast, although for a time some effort was made to carry on work along the Mississippi River. Five orphan asylums were opened in Louisiana and Mississippi, Florida and South Carolina, but do not seem to have had a very long existence. Depots were established at all centers of influence, from which clothes, books, school materials, and other supplies were distributed.

In 1866 there were 33 auxiliary societies. Methods of collecting money became systematized slowly, while paid collectors were discontinued after two years. During 1865 and 1866 the society kept 16 lecturers on the road, who canvassed 45 New York counties and organized 350 auxiliaries, most of which proved but short-lived. The effect of this work, however, was shown in increased contributions and interest. The

¹ In this order he not only appealed for clothing and supplies, but urged also the institution of "a suitable system of culture and instruction."

² From pamphlet issued by the New York Society in 1866.

New York Society was a constituent body in the United States Commission of 1863;¹ in September, 1865, the society entered the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, and was thereafter a constituent part of that commission and the later American Freedmen's Union Commission. Among the officers who served the society were Francis G. Shaw, president; William Cullen Bryant, a vice president; and Lyman Abbott, a member of the executive committee.

The New York Society discontinued work in 1869, turning over its 14 teachers in Virginia to the New England Society, together with funds for their support for a year. Up to 1866 the association raised \$400,000 in cash and collected supplies valued at \$200,000. During its whole existence, the receipts probably aggregated at least \$500,000 in cash and \$250,000 in supplies.

The Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, or Philadelphia Society, was organized at Philadelphia, in March, 1862, under the name of the Port Royal Relief Committee. Its work was similar to that of the New England and New York Societies, and it was absorbed into the several national bodies as they were successively organized.

In January, 1865, the Philadelphia Society had 16 schools and 38 teachers, located in South Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, and the District of Columbia, together with an industrial and a normal school in Washington. A few months later the work had enlarged to cover also Virginia, Maryland, Mississippi, and North Carolina.

From 1862 to 1865 the total receipts of the society amounted to \$250,000. Sixty-five teachers formed the maximum force of the association, with an average of about 60.

The Western Freedmen's Aid Commission was organized in Cincinnati in the fall of 1862, under the temporary name of "Contrabands' Relief Association." The work of this organization lay in the southwest and along the Mississippi River, in Mississippi, Arkansas, and western Tennessee. Early in 1863 teachers were sent to colored camps on the Mississippi. During the severe winter of 1862-3 physical relief was distributed. In 1864-5 the commission expended \$26,000 on schools and \$101,000 on relief. The following year, 1865-6, considerable British aid was received. Stores were opened containing \$78,000 in supplies. From 1866 to 1871 the total receipts of the Cincinnati Society aggregated \$227,000.

On December 2, 1863, the Cincinnati Society became a charter member of the United States Commission. In 1866 its agency and office work was combined with that of the American Missionary Association, although it did not wholly give up its corporate existence.

The Northwestern Freedmen's Aid Commission was organized in Chicago during the autumn of 1863, entering the United States Commission a few weeks later. It afterwards joined the American Freedmen's Union Commission, and in 1868, like the Cincinnati branch, its work was united with that of the American Missionary Association.

The work of the Chicago society lay mainly in the Gulf States. From 1863 to 1865 an average of 50 teachers were maintained.

The Friends of the United States were early on the field with their aid. In November, 1863, the "Friends' Association of Philadelphia and its Vicinity for the Relief of Colored Freedmen" was organized. This society was usually known as the Friends' Freedmen's Relief Association of Philadelphia. Its stated object was "to relieve the

¹ See p. 269.

wants, provide for the instruction, and protect the rights of the freedmen."¹ Receipts during the first year aggregated \$53,800, of which English Friends contributed \$9,700. From 1863 to 1867 the association expended \$210,500. Stores were opened at various points in Virginia and North Carolina.

Another Philadelphia Friends' association was "The Friends' Association for the Aid and Elevation of the Freedmen." It carried on some work in 1862, but was not formally organized until 1864. With its work mainly located in Virginia and South Carolina, it maintained, in 1868, 14 schools, with 732 pupils. From 1862 to 1869 its receipts aggregated \$57,500, which was expended for schools, seeds, supplies, donations to asylums, and 50,000 copies of the New Testament.

The New England yearly meeting of Friends organized work for freedmen in 1864. Its main energies were exerted in Washington, where it operated a store at cost prices, and conducted day, evening, and Sunday schools. The general office of this association was at New Bedford, Mass.

The Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People was founded in 1864. The association appealed to the citizens of Maryland for aid on the ground that no whites would immigrate into the State until the blacks were instructed in the methods of productive labor.

The first annual report of the Baltimore society, November, 1865, showed receipts for the year of \$17,556. The second annual report, November, 1866, announced that the school work had more than tripled and showed receipts amounting to \$52,551, of which colored people had contributed \$6,000. In 1867 the city of Baltimore subsidized the society to the amount of \$20,000, while the Negroes of Maryland gave \$23,371. The city subsidy was granted for several successive years, in 1869 taking the form of books and furniture.

The Baltimore society cooperated with the New England society after 1865, but disbanded in 1871 and turned over the general support of its schools to public agencies of the city and the State.

Foreign humanitarians early became interested in American freedmen's aid. In 1863 English Friends contributed £3,000 through Friends in the United States. In 1864 £3,000 went forward from England and £1,500 from Ireland. The New England Society at its second annual meeting in 1864 reported a number of foreign contributions: \$2,100 from the London Freedmen's Aid Society and other English sources, small sums from France and Ireland, and \$1,313 from five Parsee firms in London. This last represented one-third the total contribution of these firms, the remaining two-thirds going in equal shares to the New York and Philadelphia societies. The western societies also received gifts from a number of foreign sources.

Various English societies were organized from 1863 to 1865, with the aim of supplementing American work for freedmen. In May, 1865, these societies held a meeting in London, at which a national committee was organized, composed of two representatives from each district association, with the following functions:

1. To circulate information of freedmen's aid among the English societies.
2. To organize new societies and assist in the raising of funds.

¹ Howard: *Op. cit.*, p. 74.

3. To act as a medium of communication between American and English societies, and to introduce American delegates.

4. To hold periodic meetings for reports and resolutions.

At this meeting delegates attended from the Leeds, London, Birmingham and Midland, Manchester, Leicester, and Northampton societies, from the Congregational Union of England and Wales, the Friends' Central Relief Committee, the Workmen's Auxiliary of the Midland Association, the Darlington Committee, the Syrian Mission, and two American associations.¹ The chairmen were Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton and the Duke of Argyll.

Considerable emphasis was laid by the British societies on the fact that in the Irish famine of 1846 and during the distress in Lancashire and other English and Scotch manufacturing districts in 1862-63, American contributions had been prompt and generous. In 1846 nearly a million dollars had been raised in the United States, largely in the form of supplies, while for the Lancashire sufferers Americans contributed \$350,000. English contributions for the aid of American freedmen were solicited as a form of recognition and appreciation of American assistance in times of British need.

Early in 1866 a commemorative meeting of the London Freedmen's Aid Society was held to celebrate the passage of the thirteenth amendment to the United States Constitution. At this time the society changed its name to the British and Foreign Freedmen's Aid Society, broadening its scope of work to include aid for the suffering Negroes of Jamaica. This society for some time published a monthly called the "Freed-Man."

It was reported through the Freedmen's Bureau on January 1, 1869, that English freedmen's aid societies had contributed \$40,000 during the previous year, and a total of \$500,000 since emancipation. Dr. Curry estimated² the total receipts in money and supplies from Great Britain at \$1,000,000. Considerable sums were received also from the Continent.

The American Union Commission, as already noted,³ opened its career in New York City in 1864. Although much of its energy was devoted to the white loyalists of the South,⁴ it distinctly made no discrimination on account of race or color. Physical relief was the first and greatest care, yet a few schools were established, and the free-school party of the South was heartily supported, especially in Tennessee and North Carolina.

No condition was imposed on the people who were aided, "the truly needy of either color" being relieved on equal terms. Yet the commission felt that avowed white Unionists of the South, or loyal refugees, as they were called, deserved recognition for their devotion and their suffering, and they were often given the preference. For the most part, the agents of the commission reported that they experienced uniform courtesy and cooperation from southern officials and people.

In November, 1865, the commission united with the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, under the name of American Freedmen's Union Commission:

The National Freedmen's Relief Association of the District of Columbia was established on April 9, 1862, and labored in Washington and vicinity. The first school was

¹ Associations were reported also from Liverpool, Bradford, Bristol, Cheltenham, Brighton, and Mansfield.

² J. L. M. Curry: *Education of the Negroes since 1860*, p. 20-22.

³ Page 271.

⁴ "It is catholic in its benefactions, recognizing no distinctions of caste or color, proffering its assistance to all men upon the score of a common humanity alone." (*The American Union Commission: its Origin, Opinion and Purposes*, 1865, p. 3.)

organized November 23, 1863. Physical and legal relief and practical education were combined in the society's work.

Another Washington society, the National Association for the Relief of Destitute Colored Women and Children, was incorporated by Congress February 14, 1863, opened a home, which at last reports (1916) was still in existence, and received for some years a national subsidy.

The colored folk were themselves not inactive. The African Civilization Society, officered and managed by Negroes, opened schools in Washington in 1864. Its work was later extended into the Carolinas, Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi, and Louisiana. In 1868 the society employed 129 teachers, with 8,000 pupils, at an expense of \$53,700. In Brooklyn, where the society's headquarters was situated, the society operated an orphan asylum with aid from the Freedmen's Bureau. On January 1, 1869, the society reported itself embarrassed for lack of funds.

DENOMINATIONAL ACTIVITIES.

Methodists, Presbyterians, and Baptists all carried on extensive freedmen's aid. The Congregationalists, Free-Will Baptists, Wesleyan Methodists, and Reformed Dutch, as already noted, designated the American Missionary Association their agent in the field, but the greater number of the churches worked independently.

In 1864 the Methodist Episcopal General Conference approved undenominational work for freedmen, in cooperation with other denominations. In August, 1866, however, there was organized at Cincinnati the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Church, to cooperate with the other benevolences of that church. About the same time, other churches also gave up their undenominational position. The undenominational movement in one respect lacked unity of policy. The two western societies (Chicago and Cincinnati) employed only members of evangelical churches as teachers; the three eastern societies (Boston, New York, and Philadelphia) did not regard church membership essential for service. Distinctly missionary work was not feasible in undenominational work; the labor was purely educational, not religious; and teachers were not selected "with reference to evangelical sentiments and experimental godliness."¹ The entry of church organizations into freedmen's work, however, tended to deepen the interest of many persons who would not have responded to the undenominational appeal of the nonsectarian societies.

The work of the Methodist Society, at first that of relieving physical want, developed later into—

1. Primary educational work.
2. Higher education.
3. Normal training.
4. Introduction of the public school idea.

The first schools opened were for Negroes only, and in 1868 numbered 29, with 51 teachers and 5,000 pupils, throughout Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Louisiana, Alabama, and Georgia. In 1871 the work was extended to whites as well, while in the early eighties general educational work in the South was adopted as the

¹ R. S. Rust: Educational work in the South, p. 2.

society's chief field of activity. The receipts of the society during its first six years of existence amounted to \$315,100.

The Baptists were early in the field. The American Baptist Home Missionary Association labored among the Mississippi River Negroes before the fall of Vicksburg, in 1863, together with the American Missionary Association and agents of the Friends. After the capture of Vicksburg, the United Baptists established the first colored school in that city, in the basement of a Methodist church. Other denominations that cooperated with the Baptists in their western work were the United Presbyterians, Reformed Presbyterians, and United Brethren in Christ.

In the East the Baptists set up a school in Alexandria, Va., as early as January 1, 1862. Two years later they had several missionaries and 14 assistants at work in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, and the District of Columbia. "For a time the Baptist work was embarrassed by a multiplicity of organizations, and by consequent friction between them. But with the harmonizing of these interests and the delegation of all colored missions to the American Baptist Home Missionary Association, a new impulse was given to the work." In 1867 this Baptist association had 50 ordained ministers on the field, while a number of colored students were already in training for the ministry. Up to 1894, the society had spent \$2,452,000 for Negro aid and instruction, and at that time controlled several colleges for blacks in the South.

The Free-Will Baptist Church cooperated at all important points with the American Missionary Association, and also maintained through its Home Missionary Society an office at Dover, N. H. Some restricted work was done in the Shenandoah Valley in the East and at a few points in the West, with a maximum of 40 missionaries and teachers and 3,467 pupils. Missionary work and the formation of churches were regarded as of especial importance.

The Presbyterian General Assembly at Pittsburgh, June 22, 1865, appointed a general committee on freedmen, with 18 members and a secretary and treasurer. This committee replaced the then existing eastern and western Presbyterian commissions, and took in charge the 36 teachers and missionaries already on the field. Only Presbyterians were sent out as workers, and indorsements were required for them from their respective presbyteries or synods. In May, 1866, the 55 missionaries on the field reported 3,256 day pupils, 2,043 Sunday School scholars, and six churches, with 526 members. Work was done chiefly in Tennessee, Alabama, North Carolina, and Kansas, with scattered efforts in the other Southern States. Churches were built, colored ministers and teachers were trained, elementary instruction was carried on, and two higher institutions were chartered. Total receipts for 1865-66 were reported at \$25,350, together with 30 to 40 boxes of clothing. In 1870 the working force numbered 157, of whom 105 were colored, 53 of the whole number being women. The expenditures for 1865-1870 amounted to \$244,700.

Old School and United Presbyterians also carried on some work. The Reformed Presbyterian Board of Missions had five schools in Washington in 1864. The expenditures averaged \$3,000 a year, and the number of pupils 175. Headquarters were at Allegheny City, Pa.

¹ Joseph H. Clark: *Leavening the Nation*, p. 184.

The Protestant Episcopal Freedmen's Commission was organized in 1865 with 28 members, 16 of whom were clergymen. The aim was to watch over "the religious and other instruction of the freedmen."¹ Physical relief was extended where needed.

In the early part of 1865 there was established in Boston "The Massachusetts Episcopal Association for the Promotion of Christian knowledge among the Freedmen and other Colored Persons of the South and Southwest." Despite the long title, but little record is left of this society's work. The bishop of the diocese was president *ex officio*.

The American Bible Society up to 1868 sent a million copies of Scriptural and religious works to the Southern negroes, many of which were supplied to the official boards of education that were under the supervision of the Freedmen's Bureau.

The American Tract Society also distributed literature. In 1862 it opened a colored school in Washington, and later conducted school and church services in the contraband camps of the District of Columbia.

The African Methodist Episcopal Church carried on mission and school work from 1864 to 1868. During 1868 Sunday School pupils numbered 40,000, and library volumes in schools 39,000. Headquarters were at Brooklyn and Baltimore.

PHYSICAL RELIEF.

In the original appeals from the South the relief of physical necessities was always mentioned first. Relief was the earliest care of all workers on the field, and not till the last society had withdrawn its agents was it wholly abandoned. The Negro contrabands, huddled together on deserted plantations or in miserable camps, needed aid of the most material character. This was promptly furnished, both by the societies and by the Government agencies.

The first appeals to the North named rations and clothing as the primary physical needs of the refugee blacks. The American Missionary Association sent clothing as its first contribution toward the settlement of the Negro problem, and throughout the whole reconstruction period distributed physical relief wherever needed. The improvement which the New England Society declared the blacks needed was first industrial and then intellectual. During the first five years of this society's existence, it sent \$150,000 in supplies to the South, nearly one-half of which was dispatched in 1865-66 alone. The teachers' letters of the first few months of work in 1862 paint one somber picture of destitution, each letter ending with the invariable appeal for clothing, food, and medicines. Relief was quickly furnished, and was continued with great generosity up to 1866.

The New York Society came into being as the result of an appeal from Gen. Sherman for clothing and supplies; its avowed object was "the relief and improvement of the freedmen of the colored race." The first party of workers carried with them all manner of supplies for the blacks. During the period of the society's usefulness (1862-1869), supplies to the value of at least \$250,000 were shipped South.

The Philadelphia Society carried on extensive relief work early in its career. An active auxiliary of the society, the Philadelphia women's branch of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission, sent out \$35,000 worth of clothing in 1865-66.

¹ Protestant Episcopal Freedmen's Commission Occasional Paper, January, 1866, p. 2.

The relief activities of the Western Freedmen's Aid Commission, or Cincinnati Society, have already been described.¹ During 1864-65 over \$100,000 was spent in relief work.

The Friends regarded material relief one of the two branches of their work. The Women's Aid Association of Philadelphia, organized in 1862, cut out many garments, shipped yarns, knitting needles, and hospital supplies into the South, and stimulated the activities of many auxiliary and local sewing societies. All the Friends' associations either engaged in relief work or conducted stores to supply the Negroes with goods at cost.

British societies transmitted a large share of their contributions in the form of supplies, especially clothing and farm implements; many of these were transported by English steamship lines free of charge.²

The American Union Commission had as its primary object the relief of southern destitutes, both black and white. By April, 1865, the commission had distributed over \$50,000 in supplies, especially seeds, agricultural implements, food, medicines, and clothing.

All the religious societies carried on relief work, but subordinated the relief feature to their religious and educational interests.

Two sanitary commissions that were organized during the war, although especially designed to aid, first, Union soldiers, and later, loyal white refugees in the South, also helped the suffering Negroes at various points. The Western Sanitary Commission brought about much amelioration in the condition of the Mississippi Valley Negroes. The United States Sanitary Commission, an official body appointed in 1861, aided and nursed colored soldiers as well as white. After the war the New England branch of the commission was continued under the name of the Soldiers' Memorial Society of Boston, which furnished aid impartially to colored and white institutions. The claim agencies of the commission investigated and settled the claims of many colored soldiers.

The Negroes themselves were not inattentive to the physical needs of their brethren. The efforts of a number of colored people on behalf of the freedmen have already been described,³ some of the work being that of relief. In 1865 a colored committee of 24 in Charleston investigated the condition of the Negroes in that city and assisted the work of Government relief by their recommendations. In the same city a colored "Ladies Patriotic Association" of 300 members relieved suffering among destitute Negroes. In Augusta a Negro society established and for a time conducted a freedmen's hospital.⁴

It is clear that the earliest duty of the freedmen's aid societies was to relieve the immediate and pressing physical needs of the southern Negroes, and this phase may be noticed throughout their whole history. But after the creation of the Freedmen's Bureau, in 1865, and the institution by Government agency of organized and systematic relief, the chief attention of the voluntary bodies turned naturally to other fields.

¹ Page 277.

² Especially the Cunard Line and the Union Steamship Line.

³ Page 260.

⁴ P. S. Peirce: *Op. cit.*, p. 87.

EDUCATION.

If the first aim of the freedmen's aid societies was to alleviate physical suffering, this was only because the need for material relief was immediate and absolute. The chief and underlying aim of the societies was to improve the Negro race by implanting moral ideals and cultivating the intellectual capacities of the Negroes. To accomplish these ends required greater foresight and more careful organization than the relief of mere bodily want.

Education then, in its largest sense, was the avowed duty of the freedmen's societies; and their history is chiefly that of establishing schools,¹ placing teachers, grading and systematizing instruction, and stimulating the growth of public-school systems in the Southern States.

The earliest appeals from the South included instruction as a great need. Even before these appeals were made, Rev. D. L. Johnson had opened a contraband school, at Washington in 1861. He was closely followed by the American Missionary Association, by Solomon Peck at Beaufort, and by the early freedmen's societies. From this time educational work played an important, and in later years almost the entire, rôle in freedmen's aid. All the national or federated bodies emphasized the need and importance of instruction, and laid plans to meet the need. To the work of the denominational and distinctly religious societies was added that of religious instruction, the establishment of churches and Sunday schools, and the training of promising Negroes for the ministry.

The American Missionary Association has always emphasized education. The association in 1858 founded Berea College, Kentucky. In 1868 this college had an attendance of 200, of whom but one-third were white. Fisk University was established by the association in 1866, Talladega College in 1867, Hampton Institute in 1868, Atlanta and Straight Universities in 1869. Normal schools were also opened.

The New York Society maintained graded, normal, and industrial schools. The best educational work of the society was done at Charleston and Columbia and in the Beaufort district of South Carolina. Virginia and North Carolina came next in order of attention. In 1866 the society had 125 schools, 222 teachers, and 14,048 scholars.

The Western Freedmen's Aid Commission of Cincinnati had 58 teachers in the field during 1864-65. They were stationed in Illinois, Kentucky, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi. The following year the teaching force numbered 80 and in 1866-67, 71.

The Friends' Association of Philadelphia maintained schools in Washington till 1865, then withdrew in favor of other societies and commenced work in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Delaware, and Arkansas. By 1866 the field had narrowed to North Carolina and Virginia. An average of 18 schools was maintained, with 44 teachers and 4,300 pupils.

The Baltimore Society had 34 schools under its care in November, 1865, with an average attendance of 2,300 pupils. A year later this number had grown to 8,300 day and night scholars, 2,500 of whom were in Baltimore alone. In 1868 the society had 19 teachers and 1,113 scholars; in 1869, 21 teachers and 1,224 scholars; in 1870, 18 teachers and 883 scholars. Howard Normal School in Baltimore did considerable work

¹ There were four types of school: Day, night, Sunday, and industrial schools. A few normal schools were later established, usually one in each State.

in the way of training colored teachers. When the Baltimore Society closed its work in 1871, only the Howard Normal School was retained under private control, being intrusted to the care of the New England Society.

A rule early laid down and rigidly enforced by the Baltimore Society was that the colored people of a district should contribute toward the expenses of their teachers. Teachers were sent only to districts where board was provided, and from \$5 to \$10 per teacher turned in each month to the general school fund of the society. This rule the New England Society also enforced during its period of cooperation with the Baltimore Society.

It has already been indicated that the germ from which the New England Society sprang was a scholastic one. Solomon Peck, a Bostonian, conducted a Negro school in South Carolina two months before the teachers from the New England Society arrived on the field, while the immediate forerunners of the first party were the three teachers sent out by Hale and Manning.¹

Although during the first year of the society's work plantation superintendence seemed important, a few schools were nevertheless started. Some of the northern workers devoted their whole time to these schools, and 3,000 colored scholars were enrolled.

During 1863-4, 85 teachers were sent South, while from 15 to 18 were employed in teaching the colored soldiers of the Fifth Massachusetts Cavalry stationed at Readville, Mass. Seven were also sent temporarily into Maryland to teach the colored troops of Gen. Birney's camp near Bryantown.

By the spring of 1865 the educational work of the society had become firmly established, and when the close of the war brought the certainty of a stable future, plans were laid for normal schools to train southern teachers, preferably Negroes, for southern needs. This idea was developed as time went on.

In June, 1865, the society had 89 teachers in North and South Carolina, Virginia, the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Georgia. A large majority of these were women.

In April, 1867, 118 teachers, working in 73 schools, were teaching 8,647 pupils. The teachers committee laid down the following aims for the ensuing year:²

- (1) Systematic organization and grading of schools.
- (2) Thorough elementary training.
- (3) Training of the best pupils for normal classes.
- (4) Engaging southern white and black teachers in the work.
- (5) Normal teaching proper.
- (6) Enlisting the cooperation of the Negroes in supporting their own schools.
- (7) The ultimate aim of a free school system.

Mention is first made at this time of State education for Negroes in the South. Tennessee had already afforded support both to white and colored schools³ by legislative enactment. Florida, in January, 1866, established a superintendent of common schools wherever conditions seemed to warrant.

¹ See p. 272.

² Freedmen's Record, Vol. III, p. 75.

³ It will be recalled that before the war North Carolina alone of the Southern States had any public school system; in the hands of this no blacks, of course, were allowed to share.

By April, 1868, the New England Society had 99 teachers at work, with 5,144 scholars.¹ The teachers' committee reported at the annual meeting in the spring of 1868 that they aimed to assist the establishment of a free, nonsectarian common-school system in the South. Virginia had by this time one or two local systems. The new constitutions of South Carolina and Florida gave Negroes equal educational rights with the whites.

The seventh annual meeting of the New England Society in 1869 declared that normal schools would be established by the society wherever needed, with at least one in every State. The society had at this time 104 teachers in 68 schools throughout Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Florida, and Maryland. The scholars aggregated 6,490. Later in 1869 it was seen that the several towns and States must soon take over their own schools, and the teachers' committee recommended that a large part of the work be discontinued in June, 1870, since the southern State governments were organizing public-school systems both for whites and Negroes. Colored people, it was felt, must shoulder their own racial responsibilities. The really crying need was for normal schools, and these, together with a few special schools, would receive assistance for a while longer.

In April, 1870, 14 teachers of the New York Society having been added to the working force during the year, there appeared on the New England Society's rolls 70 schools, 112 teachers, and 5,017 scholars. Only a small part of the Negro children of school age in the South were under instruction, and the number was growing very slowly. Every State in the South, however, had now made provision for public-school systems in their constitutions, and nearly all were putting educational plans into operation. Maryland already possessed a white school system, while the city of Baltimore had acknowledged the right of the Negroes to free education. Colored schools in Virginia still needed outside aid, but assistance was hereafter conditioned on a sharing of the expense by the people themselves, or by their public agencies. Richmond had already for a year paid half the salaries of the northern teachers, thereby taking the colored schools into the city system.

In January, 1871, while the South had by no means fully provided for Negro education, the New England Society decided it wiser to give aid in special cases rather than indiscriminately. With the exception of a few normal schools, the work of the society during 1871 was limited "entirely to aiding those schools in which the people of the locality take sufficient interest to pay a large proportion of the expense."² The normal schools were felt to be important centers of influence and hence worthy of encouragement.

A similar policy was laid down at the ninth annual meeting in 1871. Aid was granted only where the expenses were borne in part by the recipients or by the municipal or State educational systems. Virginia was instituting a new public-school system at this time, but the society expressed some doubt that the colored people would get their fair share of schools. The South Carolina system was going slowly into operation, but owing to the extreme poverty of the counties the teachers often suffered from nonpayment of salaries. In spite of these drawbacks, and although the society foresaw probable deterioration of the schools if handed over to State auspices, yet it was thought wise to do so as soon as the respective governments were willing to receive them.

¹ There were also 400 sewing pupils and one industrial school.

² *Freedmen's Record*, Vol. V, p. 89.

In April, 1872, a cut in force of 50 per cent was announced. The longest established schools and the best teachers only were retained, also all the normal schools. Further progress in State school systems was at this time reported. Teachers' salaries were being more faithfully paid by the Southern States, a better disposition to build up good systems was discernable, and the Negroes themselves were waking to their possibilities. The Richmond work was wholly taken over by the city, and the feeling in Georgia toward the normal school maintained by the society was reported more friendly than before.

Throughout 1872 and 1873, the main object of the society was to train up colored teachers for the South. Advanced pupils were advised, if they wished to pursue further study, to go North for the purpose. At the eleventh annual meeting of the New England Society in 1873, it was reported that the schools established under the new State laws in the South lacked many of the requisites for success—intelligent guidance, competent teachers, and money. In spite of this, it was recognized that southern education must be developed from within, not brought in from without.

At the final meeting of the society, in 1874, the teachers' committee reported 6 schools, 10 teachers, and 1,000 pupils. The affairs of two normal schools in Virginia and Georgia were supervised by the society for some time after this; all other educational work was given up.

Throughout the educational record of the freedmen's societies, only one specific reference is made to the creation of libraries. Many school books and religious publications were of course distributed by all the societies; and early in 1869 the New England Society opened a carefully planned library of 800 volumes in the Howard Normal School of Baltimore. Other libraries were installed by that society during the same year at different places in the South.

TEACHERS AND PUPILS.

The character and point of view of the teachers employed by the freedmen's aid societies are matters of considerable interest. The first party to sail from Boston, in March, 1862, contained a large preponderance of men, because much plantation superintendence was anticipated. But after this plantation work had been transferred to Government supervision, women were much the more numerous. The New York Society reported, in 1866, seven women teachers to one man teacher; the New England Society, in 1865-66, five women to one man, and in 1870, two to one.

Colored teachers were employed only sparingly at first, as the teachers from the North were found to have greater influence among the Negroes.¹ This was the reason assigned by the society itself. Another reason must have been the lack of Negroes in the South with any education. In the later years of freedmen's aid, advanced Negro pupils were employed in elementary teaching. In January, 1866, the New England Society reported 21 colored teachers out of a force of 145. Of 1,871 teachers enrolled under the Freedmen's Bureau in 1869, about one-half were colored. Some Negroes opened independent schools, but these were usually regarded by the Northern teachers as mere travesties on education.

¹ "On the other hand, the colored teacher better understood the characteristics of the Negro, and his efforts aroused, among the Southern whites, less of that hostility which often seriously hampered the efforts of northern whites." P. S. Feltre, *op. cit.*, p. 79.

The earliest appeals of the New England Society for volunteer teachers set a high standard, and many applicants were refused on the ground of inexperience, youth, or general unfitness. For teachers, the society demanded persons of undoubted loyalty, and laid down five additional requirements for successful candidates:

1. Health.
2. Mature age.
3. Good education and experience.
4. High moral character.
5. Deep religious purpose.

The teachers' committee declared in 1863 that, as the first duty of their appointees would be to direct and organize labor, they "have been chosen with special reference to their fitness for this duty, for their good sense and practical ability."¹ This applied especially to the men; the women were all teachers of experience.

As a corollary, it was felt that teachers should be sent only where their work would be appreciated; hence effort was made to secure assurance of sufficient protection for them before they were settled in any region.

The compensation of the teachers ranged from \$25 to \$50 a month at the beginning,² experience and place of settlement being taken into consideration. It was generally estimated that the cost of maintaining a white teacher averaged \$500 a year, and this sum was requested from branch societies for each teacher supported. The men at first received higher pay than the women. At a meeting of teachers' committees from the various societies in 1866, however, it was decided to discriminate no longer between the sexes. Minimum figures in all cases were at this meeting set at \$20 monthly with board, or \$35 without board. The maximum teacher's salary at no time exceeded \$1,000 a year.³ This would indicate that the teachers who left for the South went largely from missionary motives, for many of them gave up larger salaries in the North for smaller compensation and more trying work in the South.

Certain rules were usually laid down for school management. Corporal punishment was deprecated or forbidden, while tact toward the southern whites was enjoined.

Under this head, it may be of interest to discuss the character of the scholars. The question of the instruction of Southern whites came up early. On this point an almost uniform stand was adopted by teachers and teachers' committees—that if the whites wished instruction, they must take it with the blacks. In Charleston, separate rooms were provided for white children, but both races received instruction in one building. Here 300 whites and 1,200 colored children were enrolled. In general, it was insisted that the whites mingle on exactly equal terms with the blacks. This was the essence of the instructions issued by the teachers' committee of the New England Society to their teachers in 1866.⁴ One clause in the constitution of the American Freedmen's Union Commission, declaring that no schools should be maintained from the benefits of which anyone was excluded because of color, was usually taken to mean that whites were to be placed level with the blacks, and the teachers acted accordingly.

¹ Among the first groups sent from Boston were lawyers, physicians, clergymen, engineers, business men, and mechanics.

² Bations and transportation at first were furnished by the Government; this assistance was later in part discontinued. See page 290.

³ The month made a school year. Traveling expenses to and from the South were paid by the Society after Government transportation was withdrawn.

⁴ Freedmen's Record, Vol. II, p. 28.

The result of this policy may easily be imagined. With but few exceptions, white children remained away from schools maintained by the northern societies. In Newbern, N. C., a handful of whites were enrolled among the blacks in 1866. In 1867 only 1,348 out of the total 111,000 scholars under the Freedmen's Bureau, or hardly more than 1 per cent, were white.

THE FREEDMEN'S BUREAU AND SOUTHERN SCHOOLS.

At the time the Freedmen's Bureau was organized, in 1865, an educational department was formed, with a general superintendent, a general inspector, and a superintendent of schools in each district. When this educational force entered on its work, it found a few schools in charge of tax commissioners, and a few maintained by the Negroes themselves, but by far the greater number were under the care of the northern societies. General supervision was at once instituted over all schools, reports were required at stated intervals, unused Government buildings were thrown open for schoolhouses, and for a time transportation and subsistence were furnished the teachers. This cooperation an act of Congress, July 16, 1866, distinctly approved, setting aside at the same time over half a million dollars for school purposes. Grading and systematizing of the schools followed, and the societies were stimulated to greater endeavor under centralized direction. By 1869 high schools and normal schools had sprung up, together with several colleges for the Negroes, aided both by the Freedmen's Bureau and by the various freedmen's societies.

By 1870 the last congressional appropriation for Negro education was expended, and the educational influence of the Freedmen's Bureau thereafter was but nominal. From 1865 to 1871 the bureau spent \$5,262,500 for school purposes in the South. Nearly as much again was contributed by northern societies, while the freedmen gave continually growing amounts. Following are the official figures concerning Negro education in the South from 1866 to 1870, as reported by Gen. O. O. Howard, Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau:¹

Date.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
1866 (Jan. 1).....	740	1,314	90,589
1866 (July 1).....	975	1,405	90,778
1867.....	1,839	2,087	111,442
1868.....	1,831	2,295	104,527
1869.....	2,118	2,455	114,522
1870.....	2,677	3,300	149,581

These figures exclude Sunday school pupils and many students in evening and private schools.

THE SOCIETIES AND THE GOVERNMENT.

The first northern agents went into a region of warfare, and it was inevitable that they should come into close contact with the military authorities. These relations sometimes were harmonious, sometimes not. In Virginia there was satisfactory cooperation, but on the Sea Islands there is evidence of friction between the missionaries and the Federal military officers.² The teachers of the New England Society were instructed to be strictly loyal, not interfering in any way with the discipline and rules of the camps,

¹ O. O. Howard: Report for 1869, October 20, 1869.
46927°—Bull. 38—17—19

² P. S. Petros: Op. cit., p. 21.

while in return the society expected and welcomed "any facilities which the Government may be pleased to grant; such as passes for teachers and supplies, and rations and due protection for said teachers while engaged in the work."¹ These privileges were granted, Secretary Chase authorizing transportation, subsistence, and quarters to the northern teachers. It is not clear how extended or lasting this grant was, but it must have existed in some form throughout the whole war, for in 1865, Commissioner Howard of the Freedmen's Bureau, under pressure from the Commissary Department, withdrew free rations from the teachers, although allowing them to purchase at cost price what they needed. The teachers were also turned out of the many confiscated houses which they had occupied, by permission of the Government, especially in Charleston and other cities. Under its educational department, however, the Freedmen's Bureau continued to the end to furnish aid to the societies in the way of transportation, school supplies, books, subsistence, and school house furnishings.

The freedmen's societies early recognized the need of a national freedmen's bureau, roused public opinion in the North on the subject² and had considerable share in determining the form of the act of establishment. As a result, the societies felt uniform satisfaction in the work of the bureau, considering its administration on the whole humane, kindly, and beneficial, in spite of some mistakes. On the other side, Gen. Howard declared³ that the Freedmen's Bureau by no means intended "to supersede the benevolent agencies already in the field, but to systematize and facilitate them." Many injunctions to cooperate at all points with these societies may be found in his various orders. Complaint was made by a few bureau agents that the northern women teachers, ignorant of business forms, failed to report regularly. With this exception, the characterization of the societies and their work by bureau officers seems to have been favorable. Said Gen. Howard in his first report:⁴

Really wonderful results have been accomplished through the disinterested efforts of benevolent associations working in connection with the Government.

Closely connected with the societies' relations to the Government is their political influence. The societies kept careful watch of legislation at Washington, and drew up many petitions and memorials. The United States Commission, which was formed in 1863,⁵ was designed, among other things, to influence national legislation. In 1864 it requested the President to grant land to the freedmen, and also successfully petitioned him to authorize pay, clothing, and consideration for the colored troops of the Army and Navy equal to those of white soldiers and marines.

The civil status of the freed Negro soon demanded the attention of the freedmen's societies. In 1865 the American Freedmen's Aid Union determined to aid the colored man in every way in securing the fullest rights of citizenship, partly because of his fidelity and partly because complete enfranchisement was felt to be "the only sure basis for a permanent and righteous reconstruction of the Union."⁶

¹ Constitution, Art. II.

² The societies sent many petitions to Congress and the President for a freedmen's bureau. "The influence of these petitions and requests can not be accurately measured; but they undoubtedly hastened action and furnished further argument and greater assurance to the friends of the freedmen's bureau bill." (P. S. Peirce, op. cit., page 43).

³ Freedmen's Bureau Circular No. 2, May 19, 1865.

⁴ Quoted by Inspector of Schools Alvord, January, 1868.

⁵ See page 146.

⁶ Freedmen's Record: Vol. I, p. 47-50.

The demand of the societies for full citizenship for the Negro became more and more insistent after 1865. In June, 1867, the New England Society emphasized the importance of preparing the blacks for their share in reconstruction; while a circular of the same year to the colored voters of the South reminded them of their duties and responsibilities under the newly granted franchise.

RELATIONS WITH THE SOUTH.

The blacks of the South received the northern teachers with open arms. To them the newcomers were representatives of their saviors from slavery. Their requests were obeyed with alacrity, and their work received at all times the hearty cooperation of the Negro race. It must be recalled that the Negroes had been trained in slavery to depend wholly upon the white race for leadership, encouragement, and support. Under these conditions it was easy to mold the plastic minds of the blacks and to stimulate their ambition to learn; and many were the tales of eagerness and aptitude for learning, as well as docility and good behavior, sent home by the teachers from the North.

Throughout the whole of their history, the freedmen's societies received some cooperation from the South. The southern departments of the American Freedmen's Aid Commission and the American Freedmen's Union Commission bear witness to this, as do also the southern auxiliaries of the New England Society.¹ Independent action was also taken by some southern agencies. In 1866, for example, a convention of the Episcopal Church of South Carolina resolved that as their destiny was most closely identified with that of the colored people, they (i. e., the southern whites) were best fitted to minister to the needs of the blacks.² A diocesan board of missions was organized and secular and religious instruction was instituted.

Similar action was taken by the Episcopal Church of Virginia, the Southern Methodists, and other religious bodies of the South.

NEGRO SELF-HELP AND LABOR.

The freedmen's societies apprehended the danger of pauperizing the Negroes and were resolved to avoid it in every way. Early letters from the field instance this clearly. Clothing and supplies were given out only as reward for work done. The New England Society said in its second annual report (1864):

The charities of the society are administered with proper discretion, and those who are able to help themselves are assisted only so far as it is necessary to put them in a fit condition for labor.³

The cooperation of the Negroes in freedmen's aid was encouraged, and their contributions toward the support of their own schools were at all times welcomed; for it was recognized that only by teaching the Negroes to shift for themselves would the southern problem be ultimately settled. It has already been shown⁴ that the Negroes organized freedmen's aid movements of their own; they also organized schools,⁵

¹ See Table C, p. 297.

² De Bow's Review: Vol. XXXIV, pp. 96-97.

³ That this rule was at times ignored is shown by the complaint of Chaplain Warren, general superintendent of colored schools in Mississippi, in 1865, that some teachers were mistakenly kind, regarding their work as a pure charity. This note of criticism is found but occasionally.

⁴ See pp. 280, 282, and 283.

⁵ Louisville Negroes, for example, in addition to paying their regular taxes for the support of the city schools, spent \$4,000 in 1865 for instruction to 400 colored children. (Rept. of Maj. Gen. Palmer's inquiry commission: Quoted in Freedmen's Record, Vol. I, pp. 72-73.)

contributed increasingly to the support of the schools maintained by the northern societies,¹ and in many ways showed a spirit of cooperative endeavor in the lightening of their racial burdens.

The Baltimore Society seems to have taken the lead in insisting on material cooperation from the Negroes,² a principle heartily indorsed by the New England Society in 1865. This principle came more fully into practice with all the societies after the close of the war. In 1866 the New England Society announced that assistance from the freedmen would thereafter be expected, in the way of erecting, repairing, and caring for schools, furnishing board for teachers,³ and paying small tuition fees. Into this spirit of requiring a certain degree of cooperation from the Negroes themselves, the Freedmen's Bureau entered most heartily.

The Negro labor problem was early recognized and discussed by the northern societies and teachers. An early letter⁴ from a teacher in the field declared:

My text last Sunday was "Work out your own salvation," showing them how every bale of cotton stamped with free labor was an unanswerable argument in their favor.

Garden seed was distributed among the blacks, with farm implements of various kinds, while the superintendents of the first parties of teachers played a signal part in the systematization of the labor force.

The process of transition from slave to free labor was carefully watched by the northern societies, and numerous instances are cited, in the various society publications, of successful Negro business ventures. In the cities these took the form of storekeeping and the trades; in the country districts, both east and west, plantations were leased singly, in partnership, or by colored stock companies, on which cotton and grain crops were harvested at good profit. From a number of sources come statements that the possession of land by the blacks would help to solve the Negro problem. Gen. Howard declared⁵ in 1869 that the Freedmen's Bureau could have accomplished much more than it did had it been able to place each Negro family on a small tract of land.

Closely related to the labor question were the freedmen's employment agencies, the first of which was established in Washington in March, 1865, by the five eastern societies. The bureau aimed to get the blacks who were concentrated in Washington away from the city and into good positions, especially as farm laborers and house servants. Employees paid no fees, but employers were charged from 50 cents to a dollar for each position filled. The New England Society in 1865 opened an employment bureau of its own in Washington, which was later taken over by the Freedmen's Bureau.

CONCLUSION.

Freedmen's aid societies, first organized in 1862, carried on work through 12 years of war and reconstruction. They first provided for the temporal wants of the black man, then encouraged his labor, and finally afforded him elementary and religious instruction. Not less than six millions of money were expended,⁶ several thousand per-

¹ See Table B for detailed figures (p. 297).

² See p. 285.

³ Contributions of fresh eggs, vegetables, and other products were welcomed in lieu of cash. (Freedmen's Record: Vol. I, pp. 164-5).

⁴ From Edisto Island, Mar. 20, 1862, Freedmen's Record, Vol. I, p. 22.

⁵ O. O. Howard, Report for 1869 as Commissioner of Freedmen's Bureau, Oct. 20, 1869.

⁶ Table A, p. 296, lists nearly \$4,600,000 in detail. This list covers only receipts of which accurate record remains.

sons were engaged in the work, and half a million pupils received instruction. Relief was extended to thousands, labor was stimulated in many ways, patience and industry were inculcated, and the Negro was carefully drilled for the duties of his new position. In the North the societies undoubtedly aroused public opinion, and to some degree influenced national legislation, especially regarding the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau and the adoption of definite policies. When the societies finally closed their work, the southern Negro possessed political and civil rights, had in several reconstructed States a share in the free school system, and was gradually returning into amicable labor relations with his former master.

The bands of northern men and women who left their homes to go into the troubled regions of the South were certainly actuated by noble motives alone. For their zeal they are commended by a large number of writers and observers. Gen. Howard called them in 1869 "the rank and file in the long fight with prejudice and ignorance."¹ M. Hippeau, a French educational agent, said in his report to the French minister of education:

It would be impossible to convey an idea of the energy and friendly rivalry displayed by the women of America in this truly Christian work, (laboring) under the double influence of humanity and religion.²

Educational reports of the Freedmen's Bureau speak in high terms of the energy and devotion of the northern workers.

In the work of relief the societies laid down a sensible policy: That no one should be helped who could help himself, and that supplies should be distributed with the understanding that they would be paid for in labor, if not in money or kind. While this policy was not, and could not be, universally followed, owing to diversity of problems—in some cases because of the untrained charitable impulses of the teachers, and in more cases because of the difficulty of exacting money or labor when neither was to be had—yet it is fair to say that on the whole discretion accompanied charity, and benevolence was tempered with common sense. The very fact that only in small degree could the teachers relieve the vast destitution which they confronted forced them to guard the channels of their bounty and to make sure of the worthiness of the recipients.

In the work of organizing labor but little was done before Government supervision was instituted. Considerable success attended what few experiments were carried through. President Yeatman, of the Western Sanitary Commission, drew up a plan of plantation leasing that was utilized to some extent. In general, however, while the societies claimed large influence in the labor question, and while their teachers undoubtedly preached industry and self-reliance, yet their work was after all educational, not industrial; and on their educational record they must stand or fall.

In education, northern or southern white teachers were almost wholly employed. When Gen. Banks, in 1864, established a system of schools in Louisiana, he employed southern whites as teachers for the Negroes, on the ground that they understood the Negro better and could combat southern prejudice more successfully than teachers from the North. The teachers from the northern societies were, of course, northern whites, and naturally of the antislavery type. With strong prejudices against distinction of-

¹ O. O. Howard, *Op cit.*, p. 11.

² Appendix to Report of the Commission on Education and Labor, 1870, p. 21.

any kind between whites and blacks, it is little wonder that trouble was in store for them. It was inevitable, perhaps, that misunderstandings should arise; not in a day or a year could the bitterness of war be softened, however tactful the newcomers.

The schools established by the societies and the Freedmen's Bureau did not at any time contain over 10 per cent of the Negro children of school age. The mass of the adult freed Negroes were not reached, but remained in ignorance. Irregularity of school attendance, due largely to troubled conditions and in part to the irregular habits of the blacks, was a grave obstacle to success.

As to the educational methods employed by the societies, the following from Booker T. Washington is significant:

Men have tried to use, with these simple people just freed from slavery and with no past, no inherited traditions of learning, the same methods of education which they have used in New England, with all its inherited traditions and desires.

Yet the educational influence of the societies was undoubtedly good. They placed ideals in Negro hearts which are reaping a harvest even in the generation of to-day. Schools and colleges still exist, with thousands of students, planted by these same societies, while the southern school systems of to-day were in the first place advocated and assisted by northern teachers and were largely modeled on northern systems. And when the educational work of the societies is described their history is complete. Their course is run, and their teachers and leaders have all but passed out of the world's history. Their influence, however, is still leavening the meal of the southern question.

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STATISTICAL TABLES AND LISTS.

A. Receipts of Freedmen's Aid Societies, years 1862-1874.

Society.	Year.	Cash.	Supplies.	Total by societies.
New England Freedmen's Aid Society, 1862-1874.....	1862-63	\$17,483	\$20,000	
	1863-64	20,567	28,000	
	1864-65	28,823	20,000	
	1865-66	68,085	70,500	
	1866-67	71,190	9,000	
	1867-68	40,120		
	1868-69	38,801		
	1869-70	37,443		
	1870-71	27,095		
	1871-72	11,397		
	1872-73	6,107		
	1873-74	6,599		\$539,219
New York National Freedmen's Relief Association.....	1862-63	9,004		
	1863-64	191,000		
	1865-66	170,576	169,105	539,684
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association.....	1867-68	48,460	10,000	
	1868-69	175,000		
	1869-70	8,348	35,000	276,807
Western Sanitary Commission.....	1863			18,762
Friends' Association for Aid of Freedmen, Philadelphia.....	1862-69			57,500
Friends' Relief Association of Philadelphia.....	1863-67			210,500
African Methodist Episcopal Church Society.....	1862-68			166,660
Northwestern Freedmen's Relief Association.....	1864-65	60,000	40,000	100,000
Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Im- provement of the Colored People.....	1864-65	17,556		
	1865-66	52,551		
	1866-67	58,608		128,716
American Union Commission.....	1864-65	29,000	25,000	54,000
Western Freedmen's Aid Commission.....	1864-65	26,128	101,049	
	1866-67	226,939		354,116
Presbyterian Church Commission.....	1865-70			244,726
African Civilization Society.....	1868			53,737
Foreign sources:				
England.....	1864-67	400,000		
Other countries.....	1864-67	700,000		1,100,000
Delaware Association.....	1869			7,348
New England Society Branches.....	1863-69	13,704	300	14,004
Miscellaneous.....				76,500
Total recorded.....	1862-74			\$3,933,278

¹ Money and supplies.

² Women's auxiliary.

³ Of this, \$9,700 came from England.

NOTE.—Dr. Lyman Abbott estimated in 1867 that \$5,500,000 had already been contributed to freedmen's aid societies. If this is correct, by 1874 the amount approximated \$6,500,000.

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B: Negro contributions to Freedmen's Aid, 1862-1870.

Channel.	Year.	Amount.
African Methodist Episcopal Church Society.....	1862-1868	\$166,666
Presbyterian Church.....	1865-66	3,174
	1866-1870	20,848
Baltimore Association, etc.....	1865-66	6,000
	1866-67	23,371
Louisville Negroes.....	1865	4,000
South Carolina Negroes.....	1866-67	17,000
Eastern Sanitary Commission Negroes.....	1866	3,200
African Civilization Society.....	1868	53,737
New England Society.....	1868-1872	798
Miscellaneous ¹	1866-1868	180,207
Total.....		\$478,995

¹ Of this, \$140,000 was reported by Superintendent Alvord in 1868.

NOTE.—Under this head may be noted the \$12,000,000 which the negroes deposited in savings banks up to 1870, chiefly the Freedmen's Savings & Trust Co.

C. Branch societies of the New England Freedmen's Aid Society.

(From the "Freedmen's Record," 1865-1874.)

Date.	Massachusetts.	Maine.	Vermont.	New Hampshire.	Connecticut.	Rhode Island.	Georgia.	Virginia.	Total.	Total reported as supporting teachers.
April, 1864.....	12	1							13	
January, 1865.....	20	1							21	
December, 1865.....	64		3	4	1				72	
December, 1866.....	96		83	5	2				186	59
December, 1867.....	104		75	6	1		1		187	65
February, 1869.....	69		16	5	1	2	1	1	95	42
February, 1870.....	64		16	5	1	2	1	1	90	37
January, 1871.....	34		1	1	1			1	38	
April, 1871.....	20		1	1					22	
April, 1872.....	9		1						10	
April, 1873.....	7		1						8	
April, 1874.....	6								6	

NOTE.—The first branch, organized in 1864, was the Lincoln Freedmen's Aid of Roxbury. Other important branches were the Barnard Freedmen's Aid of Dorchester, the John Woolman and Lovejoy Societies of Brattleboro (Vt.), and the Mayhew Society and various church societies of Boston. Families which acted as patrons were the Cheney family of Manchester (Conn.), the Clarkson family of Brattleboro (Vt.), and several Boston families.

D. Distribution of teachers of the New England Freedmen's Aid Society.

(Taken from the "Freedmen's Record," 1865-1874.)

Date.	South Carolina.	North Carolina.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	Maryland.	Georgia.	Florida.	Men.	Women.	Total teachers.	Total schools.	Total scholars.
July, 1865.....	44	13	7	22	2	1	18	71	89
April, 1866.....	56	26	10	36	29	182	79	9,649
April, 1867.....	44	9	5	26	28	6	118	73	8,647
April, 1868.....	34	13	24	19	8	1	99	5,144
April, 1869.....	42	3	30	21	5	3	104	68	6,490
April, 1870.....	38	11	40	18	4	1	112	70	5,017
April, 1871.....	25	3	22	16	5	71	43	3,221
April, 1872.....	21	2	5	2	4	34	11	1,280
April, 1873.....	17	4	4	25	7	949
April, 1874.....	10	6	1,000

E. Officers of the New England Freedmen's Aid Society.

PRESIDENT.

1862-68, John A. Andrew, Governor of Massachusetts.

1868-74, Hon. William Claflin.

1874, Rev. John Parkman.

VICE PRESIDENTS.

These varied in number up to 30. Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island all had representatives on the list. Among the vice presidents were Edward Everett Hale, Prof. James Freeman Clarke, of Harvard; Prof. William B. Rogers, Edw. L. Pierce, Edw. Atkinson, William Lloyd Garrison, John C. Whittier, Col. Thomas W. Higginson. Seven women also held the office.

TREASURER.

1865-67, William Endicott, jr.

1867-74, Edw. W. Hooper.

SECRETARIES.

1865-66, Edw. Atkinson and Rev. M. G. Kimball.

1866-68, J. H. Chapin and R. R. Newell.

1868-69, R. T. Wallcut and J. A. Dane.

1869-74, J. A. Lane.

F. Partial List of Newspapers Published in the Interests of Freedmen.

The Freedmen's Record: Boston, 1865-1874. Published by the New England Freedmen's Aid Society.

The Freedman's Advocate: New York.

The American Freedman: New York. Published by the American Freedmen's and Union Commis-

sion.

The American Freedmen's Journal: New York.

The American Missionary: New York. Published by the American Missionary Association.

The Freed-Man: London. Published by the British and Foreign Freed-Men's Aid Society.

The Loyal Georgian. Published by the Georgia Equal Rights Association.

(There were also issued many occasional papers, circulars, addresses, appeals, and pamphlets.)

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G. Societies at One Time or Another Engaged in Freedmen's Aid.

Name.	Headquarters. ¹	Date of organization. ²	Remarks.
American Baptist Home Missionary Association.		(1863)	
American Bible Society.	New York		
American Colonization Society.			
American Freewill Baptist Association.		1864	
American Freedmen's Aid Commission.	New York	1865	Superseded A. F. A. U.
American Freedmen's Aid Union.	do.	1865	Union of New England, Penn., & Baltimore societies.
American Freedmen's and Union Commission.	do.	1865	Union of A. F. A. C. & A. U. C.
American Home Missionary Society.		(1867)	Later A. F. U. C.
American Missionary Association.	New York	1846	Baptist.
American Tract Society.			
American Union Commission.			United with A. F. A. C. in 1865 to form A. P. & U. C.
Arkansas Relief Committee.	Little Rock.		
Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People.	Baltimore.	1864	
Benezet Freedmen's Relief Association.	Philadelphia.	(1867)	Society of friends.
Birmingham and Midland Freedmen's Aid Association.	Birmingham, England.	(1865)	
Boston Educational Commission.	Boston.	1862	Later the N. E. F. A. S.
British and Foreign Freedmen's Aid Society.	London.	1866	Succeeding London F. R. A.
Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands.	Washington.	1865	Freedmen's Bureau closed 1872.
Cincinnati Contraband Relief Association.	Cincinnati.	1862	Later W. F. A. C.
Cleveland Aid Commission.	Cleveland.	(1864)	
Committee for Aid to the Freedmen of the West.		1863	Treasurer, Alpheus Hardy.
Contraband Relief Society.	St. Louis.	(1863)	
Darlington Committee.	England.	(1865)	
Delaware Association for the Education and Moral Improvement of the Colored People.		(1866-1867)	Similar to the Baltimore Ass'n.
Freewill Baptist Church, Home Missionary Society of.	Dover, N. H.		
Friends' Colored Relief Association of Philadelphia.	Philadelphia.	(1864)	Same as Friends F. R. A. & Orthodox Friends A.?
Friends' Association for the Aid and Elevation of the Freedmen.	do.	1864	
Friends' Association in Aid of Freedmen.	Baltimore.	(1865)	
Friends Association of Philadelphia and Its Vicinity for the Relief of Colored Freedmen.	Philadelphia.	1863	Usually known as Friends F. R. A. of Phila. Same as Fds. Col'd R. A. & Orth. Fds. Assn.?
Friends' Central Relief Committee.	England.	(1865)	
Georgia Equal Rights Association.	Georgia.	1866	
Hicksite Friends' Association.	Philadelphia.	(1865)	
Indiana Yearly Meeting of Friends.		1864	
Leeds Freedmen's Aid Association.	Leeds, England.	(1865)	
Leicester Freedmen's Aid Society.	Leicester, England.	(1865)	
London Freedmen's Relief Association.	London.	(1863-1864)	Later Brit. & Foreign F. A. S.
Manchester Association.	Manchester, England.	(1865)	
Methodist Church, Freedmen's Aid Society of the.		1866	

¹ Place in parenthesis denotes place of organization.

² Figure in parenthesis denotes date when first mentioned.

Societies at One Time or Another Engaged in Freedmen's Aid—Continued.

Name.	Headquarters.	Date of organization.	Remarks.
Massachusetts Episcopal Association for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge Among the Freedmen and Other Colored Persons of the South and Southwest.	(Boston)	1865	
Nashville Refugees Aid Society	Nashville		
National Association for the Relief of Destitute Colored Women and Children.	Washington	1863	Conducted asylums.
National Committee of British Freedmen's Aid Societies.	London	1865	Representatives from English Societies.
National Freedmen's Relief Association of the District of Columbia.	Washington	1862	
National Freedmen's Relief Association of New York.	New York	1862	
New England Freedmen's Aid Society.	Boston	1862	At first, Boston Ed. Com.
New England Refugees' Aid Society.	New Bedford, Mass.	1864	Branch of A. U. C.
New England Yearly Meeting of Friends.	New Bedford, Mass.		
New Hampshire Freedmen's Relief Association.	Concord	(1863)	
Northampton Association	Northampton, England.	(1865)	
Northwestern Freedmen's Aid Commission.	Chicago	1863	
Orthodox Friends Association	Philadelphia	(1865)	Same as Friends F. R. A. of Phila., & Fds. Col'd R. A.?
Presbyterian Church, General Committee on Freedmen of.		1865	
Presbyterian Church, Committee of Home Missions of.		(1873)	
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association.	Philadelphia	1862	At first, Port Royal Relief Committee.
Pittsburgh Freedmen's Relief Association.	Pittsburgh	1864	
Port Royal Relief Committee	Philadelphia	1862	Later, the Penn. F. R. A.
Protestant Episcopal Freedmen's Commission.	(New York)	1865	
Reformed Presbyterian Board of Missions.		1864	
Soldiers' Memorial Society	Boston		Succeeded the New Eng. Branch of U. S. San. Com.
Southern Famine Relief Committee.	Alabama		
Union and Emancipation Society	Manchester, England.		
United Presbyterians			
United States Commission for the Relief of the National Freedmen.	Washington	1863	Union of N. Eng., N. Y., Penn., Western, & N. Western Societies.
United States Sanitary Commission		1861	
United States Christian Commission			
United Western Freedmen's Aid Commission.		(1865)	Absorbed into A. F. A. C.
Washington Freedmen's Society	Washington	(1864)	
Western Freedmen's Aid Commission	Cincinnati	1862	Absorbed into A. F. A. C.
Western Sanitary Commission			
Women's Aid Association	Philadelphia	(1865)	Connected with Friends' F. R. A. of Phila.
Workmen's Auxiliary of the Midland Association.	England	(1865)	

HISTORY OF NEGRO EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 301

Societies at One Time or Another Engaged in Freedmen's Aid—Continued.

COLORED SOCIETIES.

Name.	Headquarters.	Date of organization.	Remarks.
Auxiliary to the New England Society.	Warrenton, Va.	1866	Made up of colored women.
African Civilization Society.	Brooklyn and Baltimore.	(1864)	
African Methodist Episcopal Missionary Society.	Georgia.	(1864)	
Georgia State Educational Association.	Charlottesville, Va.	1867	
Freedmen's Mutual Improvement Society.	do.	1866	
Ladies' Patriotic Association.	do.	1865	
Lincoln National Temperance Association.	do.	(1867)	
Savannah Educational Association.	Savannah.	1864	

APPENDIX.—STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS,
BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.			
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or unimportant.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College and professional.
<i>All schools in the United States</i>	653	204	359	92,503	74,625	15,327	2,641
<i>Schools under public control</i>	28	28		8,914	4,061	3,800	1,053
Federal schools.....	1	1		1,401		400	1,001
Land-grant schools.....	16	16		4,875	2,595	2,268	12
State schools.....	11	11		2,638	1,466	1,132	40
<i>Schools under private control</i>	625	266	359	83,679	70,564	11,527	1,588
Independent schools.....	118	46	72	14,851	12,273	1,841	737
Denominational schools.....	507	220	287	68,828	58,291	9,686	851
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	354	160	194	51,520	43,605	7,188	736
<i>Baptist boards:</i>							
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	24		5,536	3,186	2,100	450
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	1		125	125		
<i>Catholic boards:</i>							
Catholic Board of Missions and other Catholic agencies.....	112	7	105	13,507	13,443	64	
<i>Christian boards:</i>							
Christian Advent Church.....	1		1	60	60		
Christian Alliance.....	1	1		71	62	9	
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	3	1	2	194	194		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	5	3	2	440	409	31	
<i>Congregational boards:</i>							
American Missionary Association.....	29	29		6,922	5,448	1,380	94
<i>Friends boards:</i>							
Friends Society and other Friends agencies.....	8	6	2	1,642	1,444	198	
<i>Lutheran boards:</i>							
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions.....	9	1	8	1,147	1,147		
<i>Methodist boards:</i>							
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	18	18		5,059	3,263	1,600	196
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	1	1		202	82	106	14
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12	12		2,808	755	53	
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>							
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	85	32	53	8,915	7,833	930	152
Presbyterian Church South.....	1	1		51	30	21	
<i>Protestant Episcopal boards:</i>							
American Church Institute and Episcopal Board of Missions.....	24	10	14	2,988	2,720	268	

¹Includes Spelman Seminary and Hartshorn Memorial College, which receive aid from the Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.

Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.			Counted attendance.			
	Total.	Large or important.	Small or unimportant.	Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College and professional.
<i>Schools under private control—Continued.</i>							
<i>Under white denominational boards—Contd.</i>							
<i>Reformed Episcopal boards:</i>							
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	1		1	95	95		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian boards:</i>							
Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	1	1		705	677	28	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>							
North American Division Conference of the Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	2	1	1	136	106	30	
<i>United Presbyterian boards:</i>							
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	15	11	4	2,870	2,470	370	30
<i>Universalist boards:</i>							
General Convention of the Universalist Church.....	1		1	56	56		
<i>Under colored denominational boards:</i>	153	60	93	17,209	14,686	2,408	115
<i>Baptist boards:</i>							
Baptist local conventions.....	110	31	79	11,250	10,324	926	
Free Will Baptist Church.....	1	1		60	58	2	
<i>Methodist boards:</i>							
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	17	13	4	3,212	2,096	1,028	88
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	11	9	2	1,207	923	267	17
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	9	6	3	1,313	1,036	267	10
Methodist Episcopal local conventions.....	2		2	22	22		
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>							
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.....	1		1	25	25		
<i>Sanctified boards:</i>							
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	1		1	130	122	8	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>							
Seventh Day Adventist (local).....	1		1	80	80		

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.				
<i>All schools in the United States.....</i>	5,228	1,355	3,873	2,003	3,225	3,522	774	127	805
<i>Schools under public control.....</i>	694	35	659	437	257	320	166	44	164
Federal schools.....	106	33	73	77	29	30	7		49
Land-grant schools.....	400		400	266	134	171	115	38	76
State schools.....	188	2	186	94	94	99	44	6	39
<i>Schools under private control.....</i>	4,534	1,320	3,214	1,566	2,968	3,202	608	83	641
Independent schools.....	1,144	249	895	521	623	558	222	49	315
Denominational schools.....	3,390	1,071	2,319	1,045	2,345	2,644	386	34	326

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.				
<i>Schools under private control—Con.</i>									
<i>Under white denominational boards:</i>	2,562	1,069	1,493	714	1,848	1,917	342	30	273
<i>Baptist boards:</i>									
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	419	139	280	148	271	296	45	6	72
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	14	11	3		14	4	4		6
<i>Catholic boards:</i>									
Catholic Board of Missions and other Catholic agencies.....	404	384	20	39	365	362	31	5	6
<i>Christian boards:</i>									
Christian Advent Church.....	3		3	1	2	2	1		
Christian Alliance.....	9	9		1	8	9			
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	12		12	2	10	12			
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	37	15	22	14	23	25	7	1	4
<i>Congregational boards:</i>									
American Missionary Association.....	383	212	171	92	291	270	30	7	56
<i>Friends boards:</i>									
Friends Society and other Friends agencies.....	96	12	84	29	67	57	24	3	12
<i>Lutheran boards:</i>									
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions.....	26	13	13	21	5	26			
<i>Methodist boards:</i>									
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	266	65	201	109	157	191	29	3	43
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	19	6	13	8	11	14	3	1	1
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	71	41	30		71	18			11
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>									
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	423	84	339	131	292	373	27		23
Presbyterian Church South.....	5	5		5		5			
<i>Protestant Episcopal boards:</i>									
American Church Institute and Episcopal Board of Missions.....	176	12	164	58	118	118	35	3	20

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Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.				
<i>Schools under private control—Con.</i>									
<i>Under white denominational boards—Continued.</i>									
Reformed Episcopal boards:									
Reformed Episcopal Church	2		2	1	1	2			
Reformed Presbyterian boards:									
Reformed Presbyterian Church	17	7	10	2	15	14	3		
Seventh Day Adventist boards:									
North American Division Conference of the Seventh Day Adventist Church	11	10	1	6	5	8	3		
United Presbyterian boards:									
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church	166	44	122	46	120	108	38	1	19
Universalist boards:									
General Convention of the Universalist Church	3		3	1	2	3			
<i>Under colored denominational boards</i>	828	2	826	331	497	727	41	4	53
Baptist boards:									
Baptist local conventions	474	2	472	159	315	445	20	2	7
Free Will Baptist Church	4		4	2	2	4			
Methodist boards:									
African Methodist Episcopal Church	187		187	98	89	143	9	1	34
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	77		77	36	41	62	9	1	5
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church	72		72	32	40	60	5		7
Methodist Episcopal local conventions	4		4	1	3	4			
Presbyterian boards:									
Afro-American Presbyterian Church	2		2	1	1	2			
Sanctified boards:									
Church of Christ Sanctified	6		6	2	4	5	1		
Seventh Day Adventist boards:									
Seventh Day Adventist (local)	2		2		2	2			

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other.
<i>All schools in the United States</i>	\$3,000,071	\$400,630	\$1,156,221	\$767,744	\$1,575,407
<i>Schools under public control</i>	963,611	85,136	5,000	5,045	868,430
Federal schools.....	172,257	51,983		3,694	116,580
Land-grant schools.....	544,520	14,326	1,000		529,194
State schools.....	246,834	18,827	4,000	1,351	222,656
<i>Schools under private control</i>	3,026,460	405,503	1,151,221	762,699	707,037
Independent schools.....	1,000,224	113,071	11,507	556,045	418,541
Denominational schools.....	1,927,236	292,432	1,139,654	266,654	288,406
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	1,546,303	217,466	915,198	167,751	245,888
<i>Baptist boards:</i>					
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	304,861	59,803	150,637	26,861	67,560
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	7,746	1,434	2,740	3,440	132
<i>Catholic boards:</i>					
Catholic Board of Missions and other Catholic agencies.....	146,821	2,252	144,069	500	
<i>Christian boards:</i>					
Christian Advent Church.....	1,500	200	1,300		
Christian Alliance.....	1,476	326	450	700	
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	4,187	700	1,200		2,287
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	29,910	1,114	25,282	371	3,143
<i>Congregational boards:</i>					
American Missionary Association.....	235,764	52,391	129,429	26,519	27,425
<i>Friends boards:</i>					
Friends Society and other Friends agencies.....	63,868	1,937	1,000	20,900	40,031
<i>Lutheran boards:</i>					
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions.....	18,319	2,600	15,695	24	
<i>Methodist boards:</i>					
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	230,160	49,022	105,835	27,682	47,621
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	23,050	650	18,500	2,500	1,400
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	42,975	1,983	38,502	642	1,848
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>					
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	200,124	21,022	115,610	18,289	45,203
Presbyterian Church South.....	7,300	300	4,000	3,000	
<i>Protestant Episcopal boards:</i>					
American Church Institute and Episcopal Board of Missions.....	118,526	8,873	70,646	32,347	7,660
<i>Reformed Episcopal boards:</i>					
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	300	100	100		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian boards:</i>					
Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	7,300	1,200	6,000	100	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>					
North American Division Conference of the Seventh Day, Adventist Church.....	12,404	120	8,950	2,006	1,328

* Estimated. Official figure not available.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other.
<i>Schools under private control—Continued.</i>					
<i>Under white denominational boards—Con.</i>					
<i>United Presbyterian boards:</i>					
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.	\$88,512	\$11,139	\$74,453	\$2,670	\$258
<i>Universalist boards:</i>					
General Convention of the Universalist Church.	1,200	200	800	200	
<i>Under colored denominational boards</i>	380,933	74,966	224,450	38,903	42,600
<i>Baptist boards:</i>					
Baptist local conventions.	181,914	41,372	112,142	14,564	13,836
Free Will Baptist Church.	1,700	200		1,500	
<i>Methodist boards:</i>					
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	129,778	23,285	75,944	10,070	20,479
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	37,600	4,039	19,088	10,869	3,604
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	25,991	5,470	16,632		3,889
Methodist Episcopal local conventions.	450	50	400		
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>					
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.	1,500	100		1,400	
<i>Sanctified boards:</i>					
Church of Christ Sanctified.	1,500	200		500	800
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>					
Seventh Day Adventist (local).	500	250	250		

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	School plant. ¹	Endowment.	Other.
<i>All schools in the United States.</i>	\$34,224,555	\$23,669,805	\$9,431,886	\$1,122,864
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	5,727,609	5,204,307	330,035	193,267
Federal schools.	1,750,920	1,302,326	330,035	124,559
Land-grant schools.	2,576,142	2,507,434		68,708
State schools.	1,394,547	1,394,547		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	28,496,946	18,465,498	9,101,851	929,597
Independent schools.	12,369,441	5,714,062	5,064,426	690,953
Denominational schools.	16,127,505	12,751,436	3,137,425	238,644
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	13,822,451	10,532,719	3,002,588	177,144
<i>Baptist boards:</i>				
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	3,870,744	3,301,623	487,364	81,757
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.	16,500	16,500		
<i>Catholic boards:</i>				
Catholic Board of Missions and other Catholic agencies.	1,491,000	491,000		
<i>Christian boards:</i>				
Christian Advent Church.	2,500	2,500		
Christian Alliance.	33,000	33,000		
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).	75,000	63,000		12,000
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	184,602	184,602		

¹ Estimated. Official figures not available.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table I.—SUMMARY OF THE FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, STATE, AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, BY OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	School plant.	Endowment.	Other.
<i>Schools under private control—Continued.</i>				
<i>Under white denominational boards—Continued.</i>				
<i>Congregational boards:</i>				
American Missionary Association.....	\$1,733,589	\$1,374,661	\$358,928	
<i>Friends boards:</i>				
Friends Society and other Friends agencies.....	915,900	378,900	537,000	1
<i>Lutheran boards:</i>				
Lutheran Board for Colored Missions....	72,000	72,000		
<i>Methodist boards:</i>				
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2,605,687	1,824,778	742,874	\$38,035
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	125,000	100,000	25,000	
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	309,500	287,000		22,500
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>				
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	2,151,321	1,345,834	804,587	900
Presbyterian Church South.....	51,000	51,000		
<i>Protestant Episcopal boards:</i>				
American Church Institute and Episcopal Board of Missions.....	628,743	499,956	106,835	21,952
<i>Reformed Episcopal boards:</i>				
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	2,000	2,000		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian boards:</i>				
Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	52,500	52,500		
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>				
North American Division Conference of the Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	42,765	42,765		
<i>United Presbyterian boards:</i>				
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	455,600	455,600		
<i>Universalist boards:</i>				
General Convention of the Universalist Church.....	3,500	3,500		
<i>Under colored denominational boards:</i>				
<i>Baptist boards:</i>				
Baptist local conventions.....	2,305,054	2,108,717	74,837	61,500
Free Will Baptist Church.....	821,295	821,295		
<i>Methodist boards:</i>				
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	15,000	15,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	800,609	730,772	69,837	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	316,950	250,450	5,000	61,500
Methodist Episcopal local conventions.....	328,200	328,200		
<i>Presbyterian boards:</i>				
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.....	6,000	6,000		
<i>Sanctified boards:</i>				
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	7,000	7,000		
<i>Seventh Day Adventist boards:</i>				
Seventh Day Adventist (local).....	10,000	10,000		

* Includes only those pupils who are not counted in the attendance of the schools of the Freedmen's Aid Society.

Table II.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY FEDERAL, LAND GRANT, AND STATE FUNDS.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools.</i>		8,914	4,061	3,800	1,053
<i>Federal school.</i>		1,401		400	1,001
Howard University.....	District of Columbia.	1,401		400	1,001
<i>16 land-grant schools</i> ¹		4,875	2,595	2,268	12
Alabama, Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Madison.....	264	179	85	
Arkansas Branch Normal School.....	Jefferson.....	170	130	40	
Delaware State College for Colored Youth.	Kent.....	71		71	
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Leon.....	345	185	148	12
Georgia State Industrial College.....	Chatham.....	390	280	110	
Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored People.	Franklin.....	234	108	126	
Louisiana Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.	East Baton Rouge.....	160	102	58	
Maryland, Princess Anne Academy.....	Somerset.....	123	38	85	
Mississippi, Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Claiborne.....	484	337	147	
Missouri, Lincoln Institute.....	Cole.....	264	122	142	
North Carolina, Agricultural and Technical College.	Guilford.....	150	60	90	
Oklahoma Colored Agricultural and Normal University.	Logan.....	408	219	189	
South Carolina Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical School.	Orangeburg.....	726	529	197	
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial Normal School.	Davidson.....	300	119	181	
Texas, Prairie View State Normal College.	Walker.....	552	115	437	
West Virginia Collegiate Institute.....	Kanawha.....	234	72	162	
<i>11 State schools.</i>		2,638	1,466	1,132	40
Alabama, Montgomery State Normal School.	Montgomery.....	714	575	139	
Kansas:					
Topeka Industrial and Educational Institute.	Shawnee.....	82	45	37	
Western University.....	Wyandotte.....	106	27	79	
Maryland Normal and Industrial School.....	Prince Georges.....	50	12	38	
New Jersey Manual Training School for Colored Youth.	Burlington.....	93	72	21	
North Carolina:					
Elizabeth City State Normal School....	Pasquotank.....	240	181	68	
Fayetteville State Normal School.....	Cumberland.....	227	174	53	
Slater Normal School.....	Forsyth.....	165	78	87	
Ohio, Combined Normal and Industrial Department.	Greene.....	231		191	40
Virginia, Normal and Industrial Institute.	Dinwiddie.....	573	282	291	
West Virginia, Bluefield Colored Institute.	Mercer.....	148	20	128	

¹ Does not include Hampton Institute: an independent institution which receives the land-grant funds allotted to the colored people of Virginia.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table II.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, AND STATE FUNDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
<i>All schools</i>	604	35	659	437	257	320	166	41	164
<i>Federal school</i>	100	33	73	77	29	50	7	49
Howard University.....	106	33	73	77	29	50	7	49
<i>16 land-grant schools</i> ¹	400	400	266	134	171	115	38	76
Alabama, Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	27	27	15	12	15	7	1	4
Arkansas Branch Normal School.....	12	12	7	5	9	3
Delaware State College for Colored Youth.....	8	8	6	2	4	2	1	1
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	34	34	20	14	12	10	4	8
Georgia State Industrial College.....	21	21	17	4	10	7	1	3
Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored People.....	19	19	12	7	9	4	1	5
Louisiana Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	23	23	14	9	12	5	2	4
Maryland, Princess Anne Academy.....	12	12	8	4	6	5	1
Mississippi, Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	24	24	20	4	11	6	5	2
Missouri, Lincoln Institute.....	33	33	16	17	13	10	3	7
North Carolina, Agricultural and Technical College.....	26	26	26	7	8	5	6
Oklahoma Colored Agricultural and Normal University.....	28	28	18	10	14	7	2	5
South Carolina Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical School.....	33	33	23	10	14	9	4	6
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial Normal School.....	25	25	13	12	10	5	2	8
Texas, Prairie View State Normal College.....	46	46	31	15	17	17	4	8
West Virginia Collegiate Institute.....	29	29	20	9	8	10	2	9
<i>11 State schools</i>	188	2	186	94	94	99	41	6	39
Alabama, Montgomery State Normal School.....	31	2	29	8	23	23	6	2
Kansas:									
Topeka Industrial and Educational Institute.....	14	14	10	4	7	4	1	2
Western University.....	26	26	17	9	13	7	1	5
Maryland Normal and Industrial School.....	8	8	5	3	5	1	2
New Jersey Manual Training School for Colored Youth.....	18	18	10	8	7	4	1	6
North Carolina:									
Elizabeth City State Normal School.....	8	8	2	6	5	1	2
Fayetteville State Normal School.....	7	7	3	4	6	1
Slater Normal School.....	10	10	8	2	5	3	1	1
Ohio, Combined Normal and Industrial Department.....	29	29	17	12	8	11	1	9
Virginia, Normal and Industrial Institute.....	25	25	9	16	12	4	1	8
West Virginia, Bluefield Colored Institute.....	12	12	5	7	8	2	2

¹ Does not include Hampton Institute, an independent institution which receives the land-grant funds allotted to the colored people of Virginia.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table II.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, AND STATE FUNDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Federal land-grant funds.	State appropriation.	Other sources.
<i>All schools</i>	\$903,611	\$85,136	\$360,851	\$481,001	\$35,633
<i>Federal school</i>	172,257	51,983	101,000		19,274
Howard University.....	172,257	51,983	101,000		19,274
<i>16 land-grant schools</i> ¹	544,520	14,320	259,851	263,074	7,269
Alabama, Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	29,209	1,660	22,695	4,150	704
Arkansas Branch Normal School.....	24,003	335	13,636	10,000	32
Delaware State College for Colored Youth.....	13,159	159	10,000	3,000	
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	34,168		25,193	8,500	475
Georgia State Industrial College.....	25,369		16,667	8,000	702
Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored People.....	22,327	439	8,505	13,000	383
Louisiana Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	31,384	282	21,102	10,000	
Maryland, Princess Anne Academy.....	15,528	2,584	10,000		2,944
Mississippi, Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	47,774		36,774	11,000	
Missouri, Lincoln Institute.....	42,162	1,760	3,125	36,386	891
North Carolina, Agricultural and Technical College.....	32,518	1,956	16,500	13,750	312
Oklahoma Colored Agricultural and Normal University.....	46,400		10,400	36,000	
South Carolina Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical School.....	44,216	848	30,754	12,614	
Tennessee, Agricultural and Industrial Normal School.....	39,819	3,630	12,000	24,189	
Texas, Prairie View State Normal College.....	49,985		12,500	37,485	
West Virginia Collegiate Institute.....	46,499	673	10,000	35,000	826
<i>11 State schools</i>	240,834	18,827		218,917	9,000
Alabama, Montgomery State Normal School.....	21,500	4,000		16,000	1,500
Kansas:					
Topeka Industrial and Educational Institute.....	15,830	1,359		12,000	2,471
Western University.....	38,148	5,382		28,766	4,000
Maryland Normal and Industrial School.....	8,053	865		7,167	21
New Jersey Manual Training School for Colored Youth.....	27,755			27,755	
North Carolina:					
Elizabeth City State Normal School.....	6,074	420		5,360	294
Fayetteville State Normal School.....	5,544	275		4,969	300
Slater Normal School.....	5,258	17		4,900	341
Ohio, Combined Normal and Industrial Department.....	77,000			77,000	
Virginia, Normal and Industrial Institute.....	27,808	5,808		22,000	
West Virginia, Bluefield Colored Institute.....	23,774	611		13,000	163

¹ Does not include Hampton Institute, an independent institution which receives the land-grant funds allotted to the colored people of Virginia.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table II.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY FEDERAL, LAND-GRANT, AND STATE FUNDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.		
	Total.	Plant.	Other property.
<i>All schools</i>	\$5,727,600	\$5,204,307	\$523,302
<i>Federal school</i>	1,756,920	1,302,326	454,594
Howard University.....	1,756,920	1,302,326	454,594
<i>16 land-grant schools</i> ¹	2,576,142	2,507,434	68,708
Alabama, Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	182,500	182,500
Arkansas Branch Normal School.....	141,456	111,500	29,956
Delaware State College for Colored Youth.....	42,150	42,150
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.....	131,421	131,421
Georgia State Industrial College.....	68,440	68,440
Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored People.....	156,700	156,700
Louisiana Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	95,250	95,250
Maryland, Princess Anne Academy.....	44,950	44,950
Mississippi, Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.....	258,500	258,500
Missouri, Lincoln Institute.....	226,375	226,375
North Carolina, Agricultural and Technical College.....	129,700	129,700
Oklahoma Colored Agricultural and Normal University.....	153,827	153,827
South Carolina Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical School.....	297,300	297,300
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial Normal School.....	193,915	155,163	38,752
Texas, Prairie View State Normal College.....	237,200	237,200
West Virginia Collegiate Institute.....	216,449	216,449
<i>11 State schools</i>	1,394,547	1,394,547
Alabama, Montgomery State Normal School.....	70,000	70,000
Kansas:			
Topeka Industrial and Educational Institute.....	131,395	131,395
Western University.....	195,300	195,300
Maryland Normal and Industrial School.....	33,500	33,500
New Jersey Manual Training School for Colored Youth.....	99,159	99,159
North Carolina:			
Elizabeth City State Normal School.....	45,000	45,000
Fayetteville State Normal School.....	38,700	38,700
Slater Normal School.....	51,700	51,700
Ohio, Combined Normal and Industrial Department.....	436,893	436,893
Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute.....	233,900	233,900
West Virginia, Bluefield Colored Institute.....	59,000	59,000

¹ Includes No. 310,035 endowment.

² Does not include Hampton Institute, an independent institution which receives the land-grant funds allotted to the colored people of Virginia.

Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>United States:</i>					
Total, 118 schools.....		14,851	12,273	1,841	737
46 large or important schools.....		10,447	7,935	1,775	737
72 small or less important schools.....		4,404	4,338	66	
<i>Alabama:</i>					
Beloit Industrial Missionary Association School.....	Dallas.....	157	157		
Calhoun Colored School.....	Lownes.....	275	275		
Corona Normal Institute.....	Walker.....	373	343	30	
Centerville Industrial School.....	Bibb.....	130	130		
Kowaliga Academie and Industrial Institute.....	Elmore.....	170	170		
Montgomery Industrial School for Girls.....	Montgomery.....	325	325		
Mount Meigs Colored Institute.....	do.....	160	160		
People's Village School.....	do.....	197	197		
Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute.....	Wilcox.....	293	293		
Street Manual Training School.....	Dallas.....	118	118		
Tuskegee Institute.....	Macon.....	1,338	900	438	
12 small or less important schools.....		1,342	1,338	4	
<i>Arkansas, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>					
		70	70		
<i>Delaware, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>					
		22	22		
<i>Florida:</i>					
Daytona Industrial Educational School.....	Volusia.....	110	110		
Robert Hungerford School.....	Orange.....	96	96		
1 small or less important school.....		28	28		
<i>Georgia:</i>					
Albany Bible and Manual Training Institute.....	Dougherty.....	159	151	8	
Atlanta University.....	Fulton.....	586	182	160	44
Forsyth Normal and Industrial Institute.....	Monroe.....	200	188	12	
Helena B. Cobb Home and School.....	Pike.....	183	183		
Model and Training School.....	Clarke.....	150	150		
Sparta Agricultural and Industrial Institute.....	Hancock.....	80	80		
15 small or less important schools.....		1,296	1,293	3	
<i>Kentucky:</i>					
Lincoln Institute of Kentucky.....	Shelby.....	104	49	55	
2 small or less important schools.....		73	73		
<i>Louisiana:</i>					
Gaudet Industrial Home and School.....	Orleans.....	52	52		
Sabine Normal and Industrial School.....	Sabine.....	168	137	31	
5 small or less important schools.....		482	482		
<i>Maryland, 3 small or less important schools.....</i>					
		38	38		
<i>Mississippi:</i>					
Okolona Industrial School.....	Chickasaw.....	230	203	27	
Piney Woods Country Life School.....	Simpson.....	158	158		
Prentiss Industrial School.....	Jefferson Davis.....	153	145	8	
Utica Normal and Industrial Institute.....	Copiah.....	317	317		
Missouri, Bartlett Agricultural and Industrial School.....	Charitan.....	19	19		
<i>North Carolina:</i>					
Laurinburg Normal and Industrial Institute.....	Scotland.....	110	110		
National Training School.....	Durham.....	90	31	59	
Palmer Memorial Institute.....	Guilford.....	143	143		
6 small or less important schools.....		254	253	1	

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>South Carolina:</i>					
Mayesville Institute	Sumpter	176	152	24	
Penn School	Beaufort	249	249		
Port Royal Agricultural School	do.	113	113		
Voorhees Industrial Institute	Bamberg	207	173	34	
7 small or less important schools		267	207		
<i>Tennessee:</i>					
Fisk University	Davidson	505	112	205	188
Meharry Medical College	do.	505			505
1 small or less important school		51		51	
<i>Texas:</i>					
Farmers' Improvement Agricultural College	Fannin	71	52	19	
Houston Industrial and Training School	Walker	227	200	27	
2 small or less important schools		65	65		
<i>Virginia:</i>					
Franklin Normal and Industrial Institute	Southampton	46	38	8	
Fredericksburg Normal and Industrial School	Spottsylvania	47	4	43	
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute	Elizabeth City	1,212	862	350	
Manassas Industrial School	Prince William	119	99	20	
7 small or less important schools		261	254	7	
<i>Northern States:</i>					
Berean Manual Training School	Pennsylvania ¹	128	128		
Cincinnati Industrial School	Ohio ¹	85	85		
Downingtown Industrial and Agricultural School	Pennsylvania ¹	86	69	17	
Avery Collegiate Training School	do. ¹	18	18		
7 small or less important schools		155	155		

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			Other work.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	
<i>United States:</i>									
Total, 118 schools.....	1, 144	249	895	521	623	558	222	49	315
46 large or important schools.....	944	248	696	457	487	381	213	48	302
72 small or less important schools.....	200	1	199	64	136	177	9	1	13
<i>Alabama:</i>									
Beloit Industrial Missionary Association School.....	6	1	5	2	4	6			
Calhoun Colored School.....	27	12	15	8	19	10	8	1	8
Corona Normal Institute.....	8		8	4	4	7	1		
Centerville Industrial School.....	3		3	1	2	3			
Kowaliga Academic and Industrial Institute.....	12		12	8	4	11	1		
Montgomery Industrial School for Girls.....	10	10			10	8	2		
Mount Meigs Colored Institute.....	5		5	1	4	4	1		
People's Village School.....	5		5	1	4	4	1		
State.									

State.

Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
<i>Alabama—Continued.</i>								
Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute.....	29		29	15	14	14	7	1
Street Manual Training School.....	8		8	4	4	6	1	1
Tuskegee Institute.....	184		184	122	62	32	32	15
12 small or less important schools.....	34		34	11	23	33		1
<i>Arkansas, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	2		2	1	1	2		
<i>Delaware, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	4		4	3	1	1		3
<i>Florida:</i>								
Daytona Industrial Educational School.....	11		11	1	10	8	3	
Robert Hungerford School.....	11		11	6	5	5	3	1
1 small or less important school.....	2		2	1	1	2		
<i>Georgia:</i>								
Albany Bible and Manual Training Institute.....	8		8	5	3	8		
Atlanta University.....	33	29	4	9	24	21	4	8
Forsyth Normal and Industrial Institute.....	3		3	1	2	3		
Helena B. Cobb Home and School.....	5		5		5	5		
Model and Training School.....	3		3		3	3		
Sparta Agricultural and Industrial Institute.....	4		4	1	3	3	1	
15 small or less important schools.....	41		41	11	30	38	1	1
<i>Kentucky:</i>								
Lincoln Institute of Kentucky.....	15	8	7	8	7	4	3	1
2 small or less important schools.....	4		4	2	2	2		2
<i>Louisiana:</i>								
Gaudet Industrial Home and School.....	11		11	3	8	7	3	1
Sabine Normal and Industrial School.....	8		8	5	3	6	2	
5 small or less important schools.....	15		15	4	11	15		
<i>Maryland, 3 small or less important schools.....</i>	3		3	1	2	3		
<i>Mississippi:</i>								
Okolona Industrial School.....	16		16	7	9	8	7	1
Piney Woods Country Life School.....	8		8	4	4	4	3	1
Prentiss Industrial School.....	7		7	3	4	5	2	
Utica Normal and Industrial Institute.....	27		27	10	17	12	5	1
<i>Missouri, Bartlett Agricultural and Industrial School.....</i>	6		6	2	4	6		
<i>North Carolina:</i>								
Laurinburg Normal and Industrial Institute.....	13		13	6	7	8	3	2
National Training School.....	17		17	8	9	12	2	3
Palmer Memorial Institute.....	7		7	2	5	7		
6 small or less important schools.....	18		18	4	14	18		
<i>South Carolina:</i>								
Maysville Institute.....	15		15	5	10	9	2	1
Penn School.....	25	2	23	7	18	8	8	1
Port Royal Agricultural School.....	7		7	2	5	4	1	1
Voorhees Industrial Institute.....	23		23	12	11	7	7	3
7 small or less important schools.....	14	1	13	5	9	13		1
<i>Tennessee:</i>								
Fisk University.....	45	31	14	11	34	30	1	1
Meharry Medical College.....	30	2	28	30				13
1 small or less important school.....	3		3	3				30

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other.
<i>Texas:</i>								
Farmers' Improvement Agricultural College.....	8		8	3	5	5	2	1
Houston Industrial and Training School.....	5		5	2	3	3	2	
2 small or less important schools.....	10		10	3	7	9	1	
<i>Virginia:</i>								
Franklin Normal and Industrial Institute.....	4		4		4	3	1	
Fredericksburg Normal and Industrial School.....	4		4	1	3	4		
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.....	210	147	63	106	104	51	58	86
Manassas Industrial School.....	14		14	8	6	6	7	
7 small or less important schools.....	24		24	5	19	23	1	
<i>Northern States:</i>								
Berean Manual Training School.....	14	6	8	6	8		14	
Cincinnati Industrial School.....	8		8	5	3		8	
Downingtown Industrial and Agricultural School.....	17		17	10	7	8	5	1
Avery Collegiate Training School.....	5		5	2	3	3	2	3
7 small or less important schools.....	26		26	10	16	18	6	2

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>United States:</i>					
Total, 118 schools.....	\$1,099,224	\$113,071	\$11,567	\$556,045	\$418,541
46 large or important schools.....	1,010,110	88,776	10,680	506,768	403,886
72 small or less important schools.....	89,114	24,295	887	49,277	14,655
<i>Alabama:</i>					
Beloit Industrial Missionary Association School.....	4,067			4,067	
Calhoun Colored School.....	31,698	1,470		24,993	5,235
Corona Normal Institute.....	4,675			4,000	675
Centerville Industrial School.....	949	138		451	360
Kowaliga Academic and Industrial Institute.....	8,076	245		7,641	190
Montgomery Industrial School for Girls.....	7,500	1,500		6,000	
Mount Meigs Colored Institute.....	3,000	600		3,000	
People's Village School.....	4,091	1,122		2,733	236
Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute.....	25,356	2,069		21,947	1,340
Street Manual Training School.....	2,300	100		2,000	200
Tuskegee Institute.....	265,960	15,055		134,094	116,811
12 small or less important schools.....	11,272	3,904		2,991	4,407
<i>Arkansas, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	1,109	525		575	
<i>Delaware, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	5,250	200		5,050	
<i>Florida:</i>					
Daytona Industrial Educational School.....	10,453	665		9,788	
Robert Hungerford School.....	7,977	1,289		6,913	775
1 small or less important school.....	728	228			500

Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Con- trib- ution.	Church boards.	Dona- tions.	Other sources.
<i>Georgia:</i>					
Albany Bible and Manual Training Institute.	\$4,254			\$3,450	\$804
Atlanta University.	44,794	\$6,858		30,481	7,455
Forsyth Normal and Industrial Institute.	2,555	745	\$200	819	791
Helena B. Cobb Home and School.	1,500	500		1,000	
Model and Training School.	1,148			324	824
Sparta Agricultural and Industrial Institute.	1,482	68		414	1,000
15 small or less important schools.	17,155	4,262		10,093	2,200
<i>Kentucky:</i>					
Lincoln Institute of Kentucky.	19,671	1,789		4,898	12,984
2 small or less important schools.	680			200	480
<i>Louisiana:</i>					
Gaudet Industrial Home and School.	2,135			655	1,480
Sabine Normal and Industrial School.	3,311	400		1,586	1,325
5 small or less important schools.	5,385	1,150		2,310	1,925
<i>Maryland, 3 small or less important schools.</i>	1,385	285		1,000	100
<i>Mississippi:</i>					
Okolona Industrial School.	8,610	500		8,110	
Piney Woods Country Life School.	3,269			2,745	524
Prentiss Industrial School.	2,240	360		870	1,010
Utica Normal and Industrial Institute.	19,499	510		17,258	1,731
<i>Missouri, Bartlett Agricultural and Industrial School.</i>	2,837	294		2,543	
<i>North Carolina:</i>					
Laurinburg Normal and Industrial Institute.	6,281	500		4,360	1,421
National Training School.	6,325	1,338		4,987	
Palmer Memorial Institute.	2,200			1,850	350
6 small or less important schools.	5,583	1,200		1,418	965
<i>South Carolina:</i>					
Mayesville Institute.	6,169	302		4,981	886
Penn School.	18,409	696		14,040	3,673
Port Royal Agricultural School.	2,369	165		1,536	668
Voorhees Industrial Institute.	18,548	636		14,083	3,829
7 small or less important schools.	5,740	1,000		3,190	1,550
<i>Tennessee:</i>					
Fisk University.	54,305	14,408	8,500	20,362	11,035
Meharry Medical College.	41,000	29,000	1,500	5,750	4,750
1 small or less important school.	8,000	5,000		3,000	
<i>Texas:</i>					
Farmers' Improvement Agricultural College.	5,128	678		1,150	3,300
Houston Industrial and Training School.	2,215	70		485	1,660
2 small or less important schools.	3,021	1,108		1,317	596
<i>Virginia:</i>					
Franklin Normal and Industrial Institute.	1,567	564	480	523	
Fredericksburg Normal and Industrial School.	1,300	500		800	
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	291,484			104,292	187,192
Manassas Industrial School.	19,638	1,683		16,798	1,157
7 small or less important schools.	7,671	1,491	380	5,533	267
<i>Northern States:</i>					
Berean Manual Training School.	9,757	2,067		6,125	1,565
Cincinnati Industrial School.	9,250				9,250
Downingtown Industrial and Agricultural School.	14,158	892		2,666	10,600
Avery Collegiate Training School.	6,000				6,000
7 small or less important schools.	18,144	3,942	507	12,030	1,665

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>United States:</i>				
Total, 118 schools.....	\$12,369,441	\$5,714,062	\$5,964,426	\$690,953
46 large or important schools.....	11,996,254	5,349,875	5,964,426	690,953
72 small or less important schools.....	373,187	373,187		
<i>Alabama:</i>				
Beloit Industrial Missionary Association School.....	4,000	4,000		
Calhoun Colored School.....	182,494	88,495	93,999	
Corona Normal Institute.....	23,000	23,000		
Centerville Industrial School.....	5,200	5,200		
Kowaliga Academic and Industrial Institute.....	33,341	33,341		
Montgomery Industrial School for Girls.....	26,000	26,000		
Mount Meigs Colored Institute.....	20,000	20,000		
People's Village School.....	13,250	13,250		
Snow Hill Normal and Industrial Institute.....	101,382	57,809	55,939	7,634
Street Manual Training School.....	13,900	13,900		
Tuskegee Institute.....	3,811,099	1,413,173	1,942,112	455,814
12 small or less important schools.....	45,900	45,900		
<i>Arkansas, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	3,700	3,700		
<i>Delaware, 2 small or less important schools.....</i>	18,600	18,600		
<i>Florida:</i>				
Daytona Industrial Educational School.....	29,875	29,875		
Robert Hungerford School.....	56,000	50,000	6,000	
One small or less important school.....				
<i>Georgia:</i>				
Albany Bible and Manual Training Institute.....	30,275	30,275		
Atlanta University.....	402,908	299,816	103,182	
Forsyth Normal and Industrial Institute.....	13,500	13,500		
Helena B. Cobb Home and School.....	4,000	4,000		
Model and Training School.....	1,500	1,500		
Sparta Agricultural and Industrial Institute.....	2,500	2,500		
15 small or less important schools.....	38,900	38,900		
<i>Kentucky:</i>				
Lincoln Institute of Kentucky.....	510,498	250,936	250,298	18,264
2 small or less important schools.....	10,200	10,200		
<i>Louisiana:</i>				
Gaudet Industrial Home and School.....	89,700	89,700		
Sabine Normal and Industrial School.....	11,400	11,400		
5 small or less important schools.....	16,937	16,937		
<i>Maryland, 3 small or less important schools.....</i>	2,750	2,750		
<i>Mississippi:</i>				
Okolona Industrial School.....	133,740	133,740		
Piney Woods Country Life School.....	9,300	9,300		
Prentiss Industrial School.....	11,000	11,000		
Utica Normal and Industrial Institute.....	160,180	154,030	6,150	
<i>Missouri, Bartlett Agricultural and Industrial School.....</i>	38,500	38,500		
<i>North Carolina:</i>				
Laurinburg Normal and Industrial Institute.....	23,600	23,600		
National Training School.....	45,000	45,000		
Palmer Memorial Institute.....	25,000	25,000		
6 small or less important schools.....	26,400	26,400		
<i>South Carolina:</i>				
Mayesville Institute.....	47,067	39,025	5,667	2,375
Penn School.....	143,724	65,996	77,728	
Port Royal Agricultural School.....	25,500	15,500	7,000	3,000
Voorhees Industrial Institute.....	176,014	63,500	101,793	10,721
7 small or less important schools.....	23,900	23,900		

Table III.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY INDEPENDENT BOARDS OF TRUSTEES—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Tennessee:</i>				
Fisk University.....	\$531,688	\$370,265	\$150,973	\$10,450
Meharry Medical College.....	170,370	127,700	42,670	
1 small or less important school.....	31,000	31,000		
* <i>Texas:</i>				
Farmers' Improvement Agricultural College.....	18,000	18,000		
Houston Industrial and Training School.....	6,000	6,000		
2 small or less important schools.....	18,000	18,000		
<i>Virginia:</i>				
Franklin Normal and Industrial Institute.....	9,800	9,800		
Fredericksburg Normal and Industrial School.....	4,000	4,000		
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.....	4,236,132	1,346,933	2,709,345	179,854
Manassas Industrial School.....	86,627	82,216	1,570	2,841
7 small or less important schools.....	77,900	77,900		
<i>Northern States:</i>				
Berea Manual Training School.....	58,000	58,000		
Cincinnati Industrial School.....	400,000	50,000	350,000	
Downingtown Industrial and Agricultural School.....	62,100	62,100		
Avery Collegiate Training School.....	180,000	100,000	80,000	
7 small or less important schools.....	59,000	59,000		

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>Total, 354 schools.....</i>		51,529	43,605	7,188	736
160 large or important schools.....		32,798	24,905	7,157	736
194 small or less important schools.....		18,731	18,700	31	
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>					
Total, 24 schools, all large or important.....		5,536	3,186	2,100	250
Alabama, Selma University.....	Dallas.....	268	161	107	
Arkansas, Arkansas Baptist College.....	Pulaski.....	313	181	119	13
Florida, Florida Baptist Academy.....	Duval.....	404	318	86	
<i>Georgia—</i>					
Americus Institute.....	Sumter.....	98	61	37	
Jeruel Academy.....	Clarke.....	127	111	16	
Morehouse College.....	Fulton.....	277	110	129	38
Spelman Seminary.....	Fulton.....	595	330	254	11
Walker Baptist College.....	Richmond.....	190	148	42	
Kentucky, State University.....	Jefferson.....	130	86	44	
<i>Louisiana—</i>					
Coleman College.....	Bienville.....	274	232	42	
Leland University.....	Orleans.....	298	203	91	4
Mississippi, Jackson College.....	Hinds.....	310	222	88	
Missouri, Western College and Industrial Institute.....	Macon.....	66	23	43	
<i>North Carolina—</i>					
Shaw University.....	Wake.....	221	52	123	46
Thompson Institute.....	Robeson.....	75	53	22	
Waters Normal Institute.....	Hertford.....	123	123		
South Carolina, Benedict College.....	Richland.....	507	254	208	45

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society—Contd.</i>					
Tennessee—					
Roger Williams University	Davidson	107	27	80	
Howe Bible and Normal Institute	Shelby	135	75	60	
Texas, Bishop College	Harrison	371	176	153	42
Virginia—					
Hartshorn Memorial College	Henrico	169	73	96	
Adewater Institute	Northampton	113	113		
Virginia Union University	Henrico	255	35	169	51
West Virginia; Storer College	Jefferson	110	19	91	
<i>Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school		125	125		
South Carolina—Mather Academy	Beaufort	125	125		
<i>Catholic Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 112 schools		13,507	13,443	64	
Seven large or important schools		1,105	1,108	57	
105 small or less important schools		12,342	12,335	7	
Alabama—					
St. Joseph's Catholic School	Montgomery	50	50		
8 small or less important schools		835	835		
Arkansas, 3 small or less important schools		253	253		
Delaware, St. Joseph's Industrial School	Newcastle	80	80		
District of Columbia, 2 small or less important schools		510	510		
Florida, 7 small or less important schools		663	663		
Georgia, 7 small or less important schools		1,170	1,170		
Kentucky, 6 small or less important schools		506	506		
Louisiana, 25 small or less important schools		3,142	3,142		
Maryland, 4 small or less important schools		888	888		
Mississippi—					
Holy Ghost Catholic School	Hinds	304	304		
St. Joseph's Parish School	Lauderdale	206	206		
St. Mary's Commercial College	Warren	265	258	7	
10 small or less important schools		665	665		
North Carolina, 6 small or less important schools		407	400	7	
Oklahoma, 2 small or less important schools		65	65		
South Carolina, 3 small or less important schools		366	366		
Tennessee, 2 small or less important schools		281	281		
Texas, 6 small or less important schools		617	617		
Virginia—					
St. Emma Industrial and Agricultural College	Powhatan	122	122		
St. Francis de Sales Institute	Powhatan	138	88	50	
5 small or less important schools		587	587		
Northern States, 9 small or less important schools		1,387	1,387		
<i>Christian Advent Church:</i>					
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school		60	60		
<i>Christian Alliance:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school		71	62	9	
Virginia, Boydton Institute	Mecklenburg	71	62	9	
<i>Christian Conventions (miscellaneous):</i>					
Total, 3 schools		194	194		
1 large or important school		106	106		
2 small or less important schools		88	88		

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>Christian Conventions (miscellaneous)—Contd.</i>					
North Carolina, Franklinton Christian College.	Franklin.....	106	106		
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.		52	52		
Texas, 1 small or less important school.		36	36		
<i>Christian Women's Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 5 schools.		440	409	31	
2 large or important schools.		365	334	31	
3 small or less important schools.		75	75		
Alabama, Alabama Christian Institute.	Lowndes.....	93	85	8	
Mississippi, Southern Christian Institute.	Hinds.....	196	173	23	
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.		61	61		
Texas, 1 small or less important school.		14	14		
Virginia, Martinsville Christian Institute.	Henry.....	76	76		
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational):</i>					
Total, 29 schools, all large or important.		6,922	5,448	1,380	94
Alabama—					
Burrell Normal School.	Florence.....	160	142	18	
Cotton Valley School.	Macon.....	200	200		
Emerson Institute.	Mobile.....	298	258	40	
Lincoln Normal School.	Perry.....	270	248	22	
Talladega College.	Talladega.....	561	382	134	45
Trinity College.	Limestone.....	225	215	10	
Florida, Fessenden Academy.	Marion.....	225	210	15	
Georgia—					
Albany Normal School.	Dougherty.....	195	165	30	
Allen Normal School.	Thomas.....	209	174	35	
Ballard Normal School.	Bibb.....	362	238	124	
Beach Institute.	Chatham.....	154	92	62	
Dorchester Academy.	Liberty.....	281	261	20	
Knox Institute.	Clarke.....	258	237	21	
Kentucky, Chandler Normal School.	Fayette.....	170	137	33	
Louisiana, Straight College.	Orleans.....	578	364	203	11
Mississippi—					
Girls' Industrial School of Mississippi.	Sunflower.....	95	95		
Mound Bayou Institute.	Bolivar.....	226	220	6	
Mount Hermon Seminary.	Hinds.....	78	78		
Tougaloo College.	do.....	444	294	130	20
North Carolina—					
Gregory Normal School.	New Hanover.....	250	209	41	
J. R. Brick Agricultural, Industrial, and Normal School.	Edgecombe.....	260	213	47	
Lincoln Academy.	Cleveland.....	120	116	4	
Peabody Academy.	Montgomery.....	150	144	6	
Washburn Academy.	Carteret.....	46	36	10	
South Carolina—					
Avery Institute.	Charleston.....	234	106	128	
Brewer Normal Institute.	Greenwood.....	250	221	29	
Tennessee, Le Moyne Institute.	Shelby.....	285	174	111	
Texas, Tillotson College.	Travis.....	223	135	70	18
Virginia, Gloucester High and Industrial School.	Gloucester.....	115	84	31	
<i>Friends Societies:</i>					
Total, 8 schools.		1,642	1,444	198	
6 large or important schools.		1,480	1,282	198	
2 small or less important schools.		162	162		
Arkansas, Southland College.	Phillips.....	352	324	28	

1 State.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county)	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>Friends Societies—Continued.</i>					
North Carolina, High Point Normal and Industrial Institute.	Guilford	408	374	34	
South Carolina—					
Laing School	Charleston	150	150		
Schofield School	Aiken	258	226	32	
Virginia, Christiansburg Normal and Industrial Institute.	Montgomery	225	208	17	
Northern States—					
Cheney Training School	Pennsylvania	87		87	
2 small or less important schools		162	162		
<i>Lutheran Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 9 schools		1,147	1,147		
1 large or important school		110	110		
8 small or less important schools		1,037	1,037		
North Carolina, Immanuel Lutheran College	Guilford	110	110		
Louisiana, 8 small or less important schools		1,037	1,037		
<i>Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 18 schools, all large or important		5,059	3,263	1,600	196
Alabama, Central Alabama Institute	Jefferson	190	139	51	
Arkansas, Philander Smith College	Pulaski	439	268	132	39
Florida, Cookman Institute	Duval	408	359	49	
Georgia—					
Clark University	Fulton	304	128	144	32
Gammon Theological Seminary	do	78		78	
Louisiana—					
Gilbert Industrial Institute	St. Mary	213	200	13	
New Orleans College	Orleans	432	298	125	9
Maryland, Morgan College	Baltimore City	81		55	26
Mississippi—					
Haven Institute	Lauderdale	308	236	72	
Rust College	Marshall	196	128	60	8
Missouri, George R. Smith College	Pettis	73	10	63	
North Carolina, Bennett College	Guilford	312	235	77	
South Carolina, Claflin University	Orangeburg	814	597	191	26
Tennessee—					
Morristown Normal and Industrial College	Hamblen	258	183	75	
Walden University	Davidson	107	30	77	
Texas—					
Samuel Huston College	Travis	377	267	92	18
Wiley College	Harrison	384	176	170	38
Virginia, Virginia Collegiate and Industrial Institute	Campbell	85	9	76	
<i>Methodist Episcopal Church South:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school		202	82	106	14
Georgia, Paine College		202	82	106	14
<i>Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 12 schools, all large or important		2,572	1,429	53	
Arkansas, Adeline Smith Home	Pulaski	119	119		
Florida, Boylan Home	Leon	224	216	8	
Georgia—					
Haven and Speedwell Home	Chatham	65	65		
Thayer Home	Fulton	194	194		
Louisiana, Peck Home	Orleans	175	175		

¹ State.

² All of the pupils in these homes are included in the attendance of the schools of the Freedmen's Aid Society except 808 pupils distributed as follows: Boylan Home, 224; Haven and Speedwell Home, 65; Allen Home, 240; Browning Home, 179.

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
Friends Societies—Continued.					
Mississippi, Rust Home	Marshall	55	55	1	
North Carolina—					
Kent Home	Guilford	140	140		
Allen Industrial Home and School	Buncombe	240	218	22	
South Carolina, Browning Industrial Home and Mather Academy	Kershaw	279	256	23	
Tennessee, New Jersey Home	Hamblen	31	31		
Texas—					
Eliza Dee Home	Travis	15	15		
King Industrial Home	Austin	35	35		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church:					
Total, 85 schools		8,915	7,833	930	152
32 large or important schools		5,535	4,405	918	152
53 small or less important schools		3,380	3,368	12	
Alabama—					
Barber Memorial Seminary	Calhoun	135	119	16	
Miller Memorial School	Jefferson	176	176		
One small or less important school		80	80		
Arkansas—					
Arkadelphia Academy	Clark	200	195	5	
Cotton Plant Academy	Woodruff	175	146	29	
6 small or less important schools		399	399		
Florida, 3 small or less important schools		247	247		
Georgia—					
Boggs Academy	Burke	134	126	8	
Gillespie Normal School	Crisp	137	123	14	
Haines Institute	Richmond	860	711	149	
Hodge Academy	Wilkes	153	135	18	
McClelland Academy	Coweta	78	65	13	
Seldon Normal and Industrial Institute	Glynn	130	90	40	
Union Point Normal and Industrial School	Green	72	72		
4 small or less important schools		223	223		
Kentucky—					
Bowling Green Academy	Warren	61	45	16	
Fee Memorial Institute	Jessamine	37	37		
Mississippi, Mary Holmes Seminary	Clay	199	150	49	
North Carolina—					
Albion Academy	Franklin	198	155	43	
Biddle University	Mecklenburg	207	24	161	22
Mary Potter Memorial School	Granville	460	427	33	
Scotia Seminary	Cabarrus	270	221	49	
11 small or less important schools		744	737	7	
Oklahoma, Alice Lee Elliott Memorial School	McCurtain	93	92	1	
South Carolina—					
Andrew Robertson Institute	Aiken	42	42		
Brainerd Institute	Chester	175	132	43	
Coulter Memorial School	Chesterfield	200	200		
Goodwill Parochial School	Sumter	200	200		
Harbison College	Lexington	89	62	27	
Kendall Institute	Sumter	219	219		
13 small or less important schools		883	878	5	
Tennessee—					
Mayers Industrial School	Knox	53	53		
Newton Normal School	Hamilton	90	83	7	
Swift Memorial School	Hawkins	115	66	49	
5 small or less important schools		349	349		
Texas, Mary Allen Seminary	Houston	115	88	27	

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Ele- mentary.	Sec- ondary.	Col- lege.
<i>Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presby- terian Church—Continued.</i>					
Virginia—					
Danville High and Industrial School	Pittsylvania	128	110	18	
Ingleside Seminary	Nottaway	118	101	17	
10 small or less important schools		455	455		
Northern States, Lincoln University	Pennsylvania ¹	210		86	130
<i>Southern Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, one large or important school		51	40	21	
Alabama, Stillman Institute	Tuscaloosa	51	30	21	
<i>American Church Institute and Episcopal Board:</i>					
Total, 24 schools		2,988	2,720	268	
10 large or important schools		1,890	1,622	268	
14 small or less important schools		1,098	1,098		
Alabama, St. Mark's Academic and Indus- trial Institute.	Jefferson	192	171	21	
Florida, 3 small or less important schools		193	193		
Georgia—					
Fort Valley High and Industrial School	Houston	248	221	27	
St. Athanasius School	Glynn	226	211	15	
3 small or less important schools		211	211		
Mississippi, Vicksburg Industrial School	Warren	121	121		
North Carolina—					
St. Augustine's School	Wake	264	200	64	
St. Michael's School	Mecklenburg	150	140	10	
3 small or less important schools		226	226		
South Carolina—					
St. Mary's School	Richland	210	201	9	
3 small or less important schools		397	397		
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school		32	32		
Texas, St. Phillip's School	Bexar	73	68	5	
Virginia—					
Bishop Payne Divinity School	Dinwiddie	15		15	
St. Paul's Normal and Industrial School	Brunswick	391	289	102	
1 small or less important school		39	39		
<i>Reformed Episcopal Church:</i>					
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.		95	95		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school		705	677	28	
Alabama, Knox Academy	Dallas	705	677	28	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church:</i>					
Total, 2 schools		136	106	30	
Alabama, Oakwood Manual Training School	Madison	106	76	30	
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school		30	30		
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 15 schools		2,870	2,470	370	30
11 large or important schools		2,562	2,174	358	30
4 small or less important schools		308	296	12	
Alabama—					
Arlington Literary and Industrial School	Wilcox	150	122	28	
Camden Academy	do	233	215	18	
Canton Bend Industrial Missionary School.	do	194	194		
Millers Ferry Industrial School	do	233	211	22	
Midway Mission School	do	100	100		
Prairie Institute	do	112	112		

¹ State.

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church—Continued.</i>					
North Carolina, Henderson Normal Institute.	Vance.....	375	334	41
Tennessee—					
Knoxville College.....	Knox.....	327	187	110	30
4 small or less important schools.....		308	296	12
Virginia—					
Thyne Institute.....	Mecklenburg.....	302	256	46
Bluestone Mission.....	Tazewell.....	110	110
Norfolk Mission College.....	Norfolk.....	426	333	93
<i>Universalist Church:</i>					
Virginia, 1 small or less important school.....		56	56

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
<i>Total, 354 schools.....</i>	2,562	1,069	1,493	714	1,848	1,917	342	30	273
Large or important schools.....	2,001	751	1,250	640	1,361	1,361	339	30	271
Small or less important schools.....	561	318	243	74	487	556	3	2
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>									
Total, 24 schools, all large or important.....	410	139	280	148	271	296	45	6	72
Alabama, Selma University.....	21	1	20	8	13	16	2	3
Arkansas, Arkansas Baptist College.....	18	18	8	10	11	4	3
Florida, Florida Baptist Academy.....	18	18	4	14	12	4	2
Georgia—									
Americus Institute.....	14	14	6	8	6	2	1	5
Jeruel Academy.....	9	9	3	6	9
Morehouse College.....	19	2	17	14	5	15	1	3
Spelman Seminary.....	51	48	3	1	50	27	3	21
Walker Baptist College.....	13	13	2	11	10	1	2
Kentucky, State University.....	15	1	14	9	6	11	2	2
Louisiana—									
Coleman College.....	12	12	7	5	10	2
Leland University.....	14	10	4	6	8	14
Mississippi, Jackson College.....	16	16	6	10	10	3	2	1
Missouri, Western College and Industrial Institute.....	11	11	4	7	6	5
North Carolina—									
Shaw University.....	30	14	16	15	15	16	7	7
Thompson Institute.....	7	7	1	6	7
Waters Normal Institute.....	9	9	3	6	8	1
South Carolina, Benedict College.....	30	18	12	9	21	22	4	4
Tennessee—									
Roger Williams University.....	17	17	8	9	16	1
Howe Bible and Normal Institute.....	14	14	5	9	11	2	1
Texas, Bishop College.....	22	12	10	6	16	16	3	3

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society—Continued.</i>								
Virginia—								
Hartshorn Memorial College.....	15	12	3	1	14	12	1	2
Tidewater Institute.....	5		5	2	3	5		
Virginia Union University.....	10	9	7	12	4	14	1	1
West Virginia, Storer College.....	23	12	11	8	15	12	3	1
<i>Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>								
Total, 1 large or important school.....	14	11	3		14	4	4	6
South Carolina—Mather Academy.....	14	11	3		14	4	4	6
<i>Catholic Board of Missions:</i>								
Total, 112 schools.....	404	384	20	39	365	362	31	5
7 large or important schools.....	79	76	3	39	40	37	31	5
105 small or less important schools.....	325	308	17		325	325		
Alabama—								
St. Joseph's Catholic School.....	6	6		6		4	1	1
8 small or less important schools.....	19	19			19	19		
Arkansas, 3 small or less important schools.....	13	13			13	13		
Delaware, St. Joseph's Industrial School.....	18	15	3	14	4	2	9	5
District of Columbia, 2 small or less important schools.....	11		11		11	11		
Florida, 7 small or less important schools.....	17	17			17	17		
Georgia, 7 small or less important schools.....	23	17	6		23	23		
Kentucky, 6 small or less important schools.....	10	10			10	10		
Louisiana, 25 small or less important schools.....	83	83			83	83		
Maryland, 4 small or less important schools.....	20	20			20	20		
Mississippi—								
Holy Ghost Catholic School.....	8	8		1	7	8		
St. Joseph's Parish School.....	6	6		1	5	5	1	
St. Mary's Commercial College.....	7	7			7	7		
10 small or less important schools.....	21	21			21	21		
North Carolina, 6 small or less important schools.....	12	12			12	12		
Oklahoma, 2 small or less important schools.....	4	4			4	4		
South Carolina, 3 small or less important schools.....	10	10			10	10		
Tennessee, 2 small or less important schools.....	9	9			9	9		
Texas, 6 small or less important schools.....	17	17			17	17		
Virginia—								
St. Emma Industrial and Agricultural College.....	17	17		17		2	13	2
St. Francis de Sales Institute.....	17	17			17	9	7	1
5 small or less important schools.....	18	18			18	18		

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
<i>Catholic Board of Missions—Continued.</i>								
Northern States, 9 small or less important schools.	38	38			38	38		
<i>Christian Advent Church:</i>								
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.	3		3	1	2	2	1	
<i>Christian Alliance:</i>								
Total, 1 large or important school.	9	9		1	8	9		
Virginia, Boydton Institute.	9	9		1	8	9		
<i>Christian Conventions (miscellaneous):</i>								
Total, 3 schools.	12		12	2	10	12		
1 large or important school.	6		6	1	5	6		
2 small or less important schools.	6		6	1	5	6		
North Carolina, Franklinton Christian College.	6		6	1	5	6		
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.	2		2		2	2		
Texas, 1 small or less important school.	4		4	1	3	4		
<i>Christian Woman's Board of Missions:</i>								
Total, 4 schools.	37	15	22	14	23	25	7	4
2 large or important schools.	30	15	15	11	19	20	7	2
3 small or less important schools.	7		7	3	4	5		2
Alabama, Alabama Christian Institute.	6		6	2	4	4	1	1
Mississippi, Southern Christian Institute.	18	15	3	7	11	10	6	1
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.	4		4	1	3	4		
Texas, 1 small or less important school.	3		3	2	1	1		2
Virginia, Martinsville Christian Institute.	6		6	2	4	6		
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational):</i>								
Total, 29 schools, all large or important.	383	212	171	92	291	270	50	56
<i>Alabama—</i>								
Burrell Normal School.	8		8	1	7	8		
Cotton Valley School.			5	1	4	5		
Emerson Institute.	11	9	2	2	9	10	1	
Lincoln Normal School.	16	15	1	1	15	12	3	1
Talladega College.	41	29	12	12	29	20	6	14
Trinity College.	8	4	4		8	8		
Florida, Fessenden Academy.	12		12	3	9	8	3	1
<i>Georgia—</i>								
Albany Normal School.	10		10	2	8	10		
Allen Normal School.	12	10	2		12	10	2	
Ballard Normal School.	14	7	7	3	11	10	2	2
Beach Institute.	6	5	1	5	1	6		
Dorchester Academy.	13	10	3	3	10	8	2	3
Knox Institute.	13		13	2	11	11	2	
Kentucky, Chandler Normal School.	10	7	3	2	8	10		
Louisiana, Straight College.	30	17	13	13	17	17	4	9

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational)—Continued.</i>								
Mississippi—								
Girls' Industrial School of Mississippi	6	6			6	6		
Mound Bayou Institute	6		6	2	4	6		
Mount Hermon Seminary	4	3	1		4	4		
Tougaloo College	31	29	2	8	23	13	5	1
North Carolina—								
Gregory Normal School	10	9	1	2	8	8	2	
J. K. Brick Agricultural, Industrial, and Normal School	19		19	7	12	8	3	2
Lincoln Academy	12	7	5	3	9	6	3	1
Peabody Academy	7		7	1	6	7		
Washburn Academy	4		4	1	3	4		
South Carolina—								
Avery Institute	10	7	3	2	8	9	1	
Brewer Normal Institute	14	10	4	2	9	8	2	
Tennessee, Le Moyne Institute	21	14	7	4	17	15	3	
Texas, Tillotson College	20	14	6	7	13	15	4	
Virginia, Gloucester High and Industrial School	13		13	3	10	9	2	2
<i>Friends Societies:</i>								
Total, 8 schools	96	12	84	29	67	57	24	3
6 large or important schools	88	11	77	29	59	49	24	3
2 small or less important schools	8	1	7		8	8		
Arkansas, Southland College	10	6	10	5	11	8	3	
North Carolina, High Point Normal and Industrial Institute	14		14	7	7	12	2	
South Carolina—								
Laing School	10		10	1	9	8	2	
Schofield School	21	4	17	7	14	9	8	
Virginia, Christiansburg Normal and Industrial Institute	13		13	6	7	8	3	1
Northern States—								
Cheney Training School	14	1	13	3	11	4	6	1
2 small or less important schools	8	1	7		8	8		
<i>Lutheran Board of Missions:</i>								
Total, 9 schools	20	13	13	21	5	26		
1 large or important school	6	4	2	5	1	6		
8 small or less important schools	20	9	11	10	4	20		
North Carolina, Immanuel Lutheran College	6	4	2	5	1	6		
Louisiana, 8 small or less important schools	20	9	11	16	4	20		
<i>Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>								
Total, 18 schools, all large or important	266	65	201	109	157	191	29	3
Alabama, Central Alabama Institute	11		11	4	7	8	1	1
Arkansas, Philander Smith College	15		15	8	7	10	1	
Florida, Cookman Institute	14	3	11	4	10	13	1	
Georgia—								
Clark University	17	5	12	8	9	16		1
Gammon Theological Seminary	6	4	2	6		6		

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Neg.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
<i>Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church—Continued.</i>								
Louisiana—								
Gilbert Industrial Institute	10		10	2	8	6	3	1
New Orleans College	18	9	9	6	12	16		2
Maryland, Morgan College	11	7	4	5	6	8		3
Mississippi—								
Haven Institute	9		9	3	6	8		1
Rust College	14	5	9	5	9	12		2
Missouri, George R. Smith College	12	2	10	4	8	6	3	3
North Carolina, Bennett College	12		12	6	6	10		2
South Carolina, Claflin University	27	6	21	7	20	23	4	
Tennessee—								
Morristown Normal and Industrial College	25	15	10	12	13	10	9	6
Walden University	17	9	8	6	11	12	2	3
Texas—								
Samuel Huston College	17		17	8	9	11	2	4
Wiley College	26		26	14	12	12	2	11
Virginia, Virginia Collegiate and Industrial Institute	5		5	1	4	4	1	
<i>Methodist Episcopal Church South:</i>								
Total, 1 large or important school	19	6	13	8	11	14	3	1
Georgia, Paine College	19	6	13	8	11	14	3	1
<i>Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>								
Total, 12 schools, all large or important	71	41	30		71	18	42	11
Arkansas, Adeline Smith Home	3	1	2		3		3	
Florida, Boylan Home	13	4	9		13	4	6	3
Georgia—								
Haven and Speedwell Home	4	2	2		4	2	2	
Thayer Home	7	5	2		7		6	1
Louisiana, Peck Home	6	4	2		6		4	2
Mississippi, Rust Home	4	3	1		4		3	1
North Carolina—								
Kent Home	3	3			3		3	
Allen Industrial Home and School	10	7	3		10	6	2	2
South Carolina, Browning Industrial Home and Mather Academy	12	7	5		12	6	5	1
Tennessee, New Jersey Home	2	2			2		2	
Texas—								
Eliza Dee Home	3	1	2		3		3	
King Industrial Home	4	2	2		4		3	1
<i>Board of Missions for, of the Presbyterian Church:</i>								
Total, 85 schools	423	84	339	131	292	373	27	23
32 large or important schools	293	84	209	93	200	243	27	23
53 small or less important schools	130		130	38	92	130		
Alabama—								
Barber Memorial Seminary	16	13	3	2	14	8	2	6
Miller Memorial School	7		7	1	6	6	1	
1 small or less important school	2		2	1	1	2		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school:	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			Other work.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	
<i>Board of Missions for, of the Presbyterian Church—Continued.</i>									
<i>Arkansas—</i>									
Arkadelphia Academy.....	6		6	2	4	6			
Cotton Plant Academy.....	6		6	2	4	5	1		
6 small or less important schools.....	16		16	4	12	16			
Florida, 3 small or less important schools.....	9		9	3	6	9			
<i>Georgia—</i>									
Boggs Academy.....	6		6	1	5	6			
Gillespie Normal School.....	6		6	3	3	6			
Haines Institute.....	22		22	4	18	19	2		1
Hodge Academy.....	5		5	1	4	5			
McClelland Academy.....	6		6	2	4	6			
Seldon Normal and Industrial Institute.....	9		9	3	6	9			
Union Point Normal and Industrial School.....	5		5	1	4	5			
4 small or less important schools.....	8		8	4	4	8			
<i>Kentucky—</i>									
Bowling Green Academy.....	7		7	3	4	7			
Fee Memorial Institute.....	2		2	1	1	2			
Mississippi, Mary Holmes Seminary.....	14	14		1	13	7	2		5
<i>North Carolina—</i>									
Albion Academy.....	11		11	2	9	10	1		
Biddle University.....	16		16	16		11	3		2
Mary Potter Memorial School.....	14		14	5	9	8	3		3
Scotia Seminary.....	19	15	4	1	18	14	2		3
11 small or less important schools.....	33		33	9	24	33			
Oklahoma, Alice Lee Elliott Memorial School.....	6		6	2	4	4	1		1
<i>South Carolina—</i>									
Andrew Robertson Institute.....	6		6	1	5	6			
Brainerd Institute.....	9	7	2	2	7	7	2		
Coulter Memorial School.....	7		7	1	6	7			
Goodwill Parochial School.....	5		5	1	4	5			
Harbison College.....	9		9	8	1	6	1		2
Kendall Institute.....	6		6	1	5	6			
13 small or less important schools.....	33		33	10	23	33			
<i>Tennessee—</i>									
Mayers Industrial School.....	6		6	2	4	5	1		
Newton Normal School.....	6		6	1	5	5	1		
Swift Memorial School.....	11		11	5	6	10	1		
5 small or less important schools.....	11		11	3	8	11			
Texas, Mary Allen Seminary.....	13	3		1	12	11	2		
<i>Virginia—</i>									
Danville High and Industrial School.....	7		7	2	5	6	1		
Ingleside Seminary.....	11	10	1	1	10	11			
10 small or less important schools.....	18		18	4	14	18			
Northern States, Lincoln University.....	14	12	2	14		14			
<i>Southern Presbyterian Church:</i>									
Total, 1 large or important school.....	5	5		5		5			
Alabama, Stillman Institute.....	5	5		5		5			

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			Other work.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	
<i>American Church Institute and Episcopal Board:</i>									
Total, 24 schools	176	12	64	58	118	118	35	3	20
10 large or important schools	141	12	129	49	92	83	35	3	20
14 small or less important schools	35		35	9	26	35			
Alabama, St. Mark's Academic and Industrial Institute	7		7	1	6	6	1		
Florida, 3 small or less important schools	8		8	2	6	8			
Georgia—									
Fort Valley High and Industrial School	15		15	6	9	9	4	1	1
St. Athanasius School	14		14	1	13	12	2		
3 small or less important schools	9		9	2	7	9			
Mississippi, Vicksburg Industrial School	5		5	2	3	4	1		
North Carolina—									
St. Augustine's School	28	9	19	10	18	16	6		6
St. Michael's School	7		7	3	4	6	1		
3 small or less important schools	4		4	1	3	4			
South Carolina—									
St. Mary's School	8		8	1	7	6	1		1
3 small or less important schools	7		7	3	4	7			
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school	4		4	1	3	4			
Texas, St. Phillip's School	4		4		4	3	1		
Virginia—									
Bishop Payne Divinity School	4	3	1	4		1			
St. Paul's Normal and Industrial School	49		49	21	28	17	18	2	12
1 small or less important school	3		3		3	3			
<i>Reformed Episcopal Church:</i>									
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school	2		2	1	1	2			
<i>Reformed Presbyterian Church:</i>									
Total, 1 large or important school	17	7	10	2	15	14	3		
Alabama, Knox Academy	17	7	10	2	15	14	3		
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church:</i>									
Total, 2 schools	11	10	1	6	5	8	3		
Alabama, Oakwood Manual Training School	10	10		6	4	7	3		
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school	1		1		1	1			
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church:</i>									
Total, 15 schools	166	44	122	46	120	108	38	1	19
11 large or important schools	145	44	101	42	103	89	35	1	19
4 smaller or less important schools	21		21	4	17	19	2		
Alabama—									
Arlington Literary and Industrial Schools	14		14	7	7	6	7	1	
Camden Academy	9		9	2	7	7	2		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			Other work.
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Acad- emical.	Indus- trial.	Agri- cultural.	
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church—Contd.</i>									
Alabama—Continued.									
Canton Bend Industrial Mis- sionary School	6		6	2	4	5	1		
Millers Ferry Industrial School	18		18	6	12	10	7		1
Midway Mission School	3		3	1	2	3			
Prairie Institute	8		8	4	4	6	2		
North Carolina, Henderson Normal Institute	18		18	5	13	9	4		5
Tennessee—									
Knoxville College	29	24	5	7	22	15	6		8
4 small or less important schools.	21		21	4	17	19	4		
Virginia—									
Thyne Institute	13	9	4	2	11	9	2		2
Bluestone Mission	4		4	1	3	4			
Norfolk Mission College	23	11	12	5	18	15	5		3
<i>Universalist Church:</i>									
Virginia, 1 smaller or less important school	3		3	1	2	3			

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Dona- tions.	Other sources.
<i>Total, 354 schools.</i>	\$1,546,393	\$217,466	\$915,198	\$167,951	\$245,888
160 large or important schools.	1,392,462	205,447	788,867	163,329	234,819
194 small or less important schools.	153,841	12,019	126,331	4,422	11,069
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>					
Total, 24 schools, all large or important.	304,861	59,803	150,637	26,861	67,560
Alabama, Selma University	9,479	1,278	4,000	2,776	1,425
Arkansas, Arkansas Baptist College	15,109	3,380	9,825	400	1,504
Florida, Florida Baptist Academy	8,070	3,443	4,105		522
Georgia—					
Americus Institute	13,213	700	1,650	10,263	600
Jeruel Academy	4,334	650	3,684		
Morehouse College	17,560	2,860	12,465	1,185	1,050
Spelman Seminary	39,566	6,236	9,500	3,625	20,255
Walker Baptist College	6,900	2,400	4,500		
Kentucky, State University	11,308	1,563	9,574		171
Louisiana—					
Coleman College	5,754	1,085	4,323		346
Leland University	10,602	2,240	362		8,000
Mississippi, Jackson College	11,581	1,165	10,074	352	
Missouri, Western College and Industrial In- stitute	4,486	1,192	3,016	118	160
North Carolina—					
Shaw University	31,973	9,573	15,160	2,250	4,990
Thompson Institute	4,137	400	1,080	2,500	152
Waters Normal Institute	4,946	101	2,595		2,250
South Carolina, Benedict College	21,384	1,861	11,610		7,913

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society—Contd.</i>					
<i>Tennessee—</i>					
Roger Williams University	\$5,467	\$943	\$2,173		\$2,351
Howe Bible and Normal Institute	4,475	2,518	1,957		
Texas, Bishop College	19,247	5,327	12,238	\$682	1,000
<i>Virginia—</i>					
Hartshorn Memorial College	8,815	3,500	4,646	523	146
Tidewater Institute	1,804	200	1,204	400	
Virginia Union University	27,065	5,599	14,821	965	5,680
West Virginia, Storer College	17,581	1,639	6,075	822	9,045
<i>Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school	7,746	1,434	2,740	3,440	132
South Carolina—Mather Academy	7,746	1,434	2,740	3,440	132
<i>Catholic Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 112 schools	146,821	2,252	144,069	500	
7 large or important schools	60,302	1,752	58,050	500	
105 small or less important schools	86,519	500	86,019		
<i>Alabama—</i>					
St. Joseph's Catholic School	8,000		8,000		
8 small or less important schools	5,064		5,064		
Arkansas, 3 small or less important schools	4,230		4,230		
Delaware, St. Joseph's Industrial School	23,000	500	22,500		
District of Columbia, 2 small or less important schools	2,832		2,832		
Florida, 7 small or less important schools	3,330		3,330		
Georgia, 7 small or less important schools	4,840		4,840		
Kentucky, 6 small or less important schools	2,510		2,510		
Louisiana, 25 small or less important schools	18,304		18,304		
Maryland, 4 small or less important schools	5,650		5,650		
<i>Mississippi—</i>					
Holy Ghost Catholic School	1,600	750	350	500	
St. Joseph's Parish School	952	152	800		
St. Mary's Commercial College	1,750	350	1,400		
10 small or less important schools	4,650		4,650		
North Carolina, 6 small or less important schools	2,700		2,700		
Oklahoma, 2 small or less important schools	750		750		
South Carolina, 3 small or less important schools	2,500	500	2,000		
Tennessee, 2 small or less important schools	4,350		4,350		
Texas, 6 small or less important schools	3,640		3,640		
<i>Virginia—</i>					
St. Emma Industrial and Agricultural College	15,000		15,000		
St. Francis de Sales Institute	10,000		10,000		
5 small or less important schools	6,075		6,075		
Northern States, 9 small or less important schools	15,094		15,094		
<i>Christian Advent Church:</i>					
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school	1,500	200	1,300		
<i>Christian Alliance:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school	1,476	326	950	700	
Virginia, Boynton Institute	1,476	326	450	700	
<i>Christian Conventions (miscellaneous):</i>					
Total, 3 schools	4,187	700	1,200		2,287
1 large or important school	2,300	300	1,200		800
2 small or less important schools	1,887	400			1,487
North Carolina, Franklinton Christian College	2,300	300	1,200		800
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school	500	200			300
Texas, 1 small or less important school	1,387	200			1,187

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Christian Woman's Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 5 schools.....	\$29,910	\$1,114	\$25,282	\$371	\$3,143
2 large or important schools.....	26,468	852	22,402	71	3,143
3 small or less important schools.....	3,442	262	2,880	300	
Alabama, Alabama Christian Institute.....	2,512		2,441	71	
Mississippi, Southern Christian Institute.....	21,006	602	17,261		3,143
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....	1,730	230	1,200	300	
Texas, 1 small or less important school.....	1,712	32	1,680		
Virginia, Martinsville Christian Institute.....	2,950	250	2,700		
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational):</i>					
Total, 29 schools, all large or important.....	235,764	52,391	129,429	26,519	27,425
Alabama—					
Burrell Normal School.....	3,391	752	2,496	128	15
Cotton Valley School.....	2,071	223	89	1,759	
Emerson Institute.....	6,437	2,295	3,795	90	257
Lincoln Normal School.....	7,294	1,617	4,364	1,224	89
Talladega College.....	39,822	5,965	25,575	7,282	1,000
Trinity College.....	4,537	1,095	1,385	1,925	132
Florida, Fessenden Academy.....	3,343	178	2,458	282	425
Georgia—					
Albany Normal School.....	4,923	1,545	3,252		126
Allen Normal School.....	5,468	1,957	2,968	543	
Ballard Normal School.....	8,492	4,124	3,952	416	
Beach Institute.....	3,763	1,190	1,594	818	161
Dorchester Academy.....	5,789	524	4,063	1,047	155
Knox Institute.....	5,148	1,372	3,444	110	222
Kentucky, Chandler Normal School.....	5,559	2,082	3,292	57	128
Louisiana, Straight College.....	20,385	7,799	9,567	144	2,875
Mississippi—					
Girls' Industrial School of Mississippi.....	3,073	260	753	1,558	502
Mound Bayou Institute.....	1,720	1,036	515		169
Mount Hermon Seminary.....	1,527	570	677	34	246
Tougaloo University.....	26,169	3,236	14,928	4,132	3,873
North Carolina—					
Gregory Normal School.....	5,748	1,730	3,469	510	39
J. K. Brick Agricultural, Industrial, and Normal School.....	16,006	1,071	988	1,208	12,739
Lincoln Academy.....	4,530	122	3,405	529	474
Peabody Academy.....	1,985	73	1,303		609
Washburn Academy.....	1,731	217	1,480		34
South Carolina—					
Avery Institute.....	6,790	2,569	4,112	109	
Brewer Normal Institute.....	6,836	1,527	4,875	382	32
Tennessee, Le Moyne Institute.....	12,537	3,626	7,252	1,048	611
Texas, Tillotson College.....	12,792	2,693	2,581	1,064	454
Virginia, Gloucester High and Industrial School.....	7,898	943	4,777	120	2,058
<i>Friends Societies:</i>					
Total, 8 schools.....	63,868	1,937	1,000	20,900	40,031
6 large or important schools.....	57,268	1,937	1,000	20,300	34,031
2 small or less important schools.....	6,600			600	6,000
Arkansas, Southland College.....	4,115	563		546	3,012
North Carolina, High Point Normal and Industrial Institute.....	12,366	400		7,372	4,594
South Carolina—					
Laing School.....	2,971			1,039	1,032
Schofield School.....	5,580	500		1,200	3,880
Virginia, Christiansburg Normal and Industrial Institute.....	8,798	474	1,000	4,185	3,139

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Friends Societies—Continued.</i>					
Northern States—					
Cheney Training School.....	\$23,438			\$5,964	\$17,474
2 small or less important schools.....	6,600			600	6,000
<i>Lutheran Board of Missions:</i>					
Total, 9 schools.....	18,319	\$2,600	\$15,695	24	
1 large or important school.....	6,919		6,895	24	
8 small or less important schools.....	11,400	2,600	8,800		
North Carolina, Immanuel Lutheran College.....	6,919		6,895	24	
Louisiana, 8 small or less important schools.....	11,400	2,600	8,800		
<i>Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 18 schools, all large or important.....	230,160	49,022	105,835	27,682	47,621
Alabama, Central Alabama Institute.....	5,657	1,242	2,900	148	1,367
Arkansas, Philander Smith College.....	9,226	4,349	2,904	1,883	
Florida, Cookman Institute.....	9,387	1,998	6,346	163	880
Georgia—					
Clark University.....	16,714	3,994	9,300	800	2,620
Gammon Theological Seminary.....	27,000				27,000
Louisiana—					
Gilbert Industrial Institute.....	3,200		3,100	100	
New Orleans College.....	12,933	6,000	5,400	1,533	
Maryland, Morgan College.....	16,419	3,285	8,256	419	4,459
Mississippi—					
Haven Institute.....	7,194	1,446	3,927	226	1,595
Rust College.....	14,656	4,733	5,820	125	3,978
Missouri, George R. Smith College.....	8,520	1,635	5,492	639	754
North Carolina, Bennett College.....	6,000	1,563	3,747	50	640
South Carolina, Claflin University.....	39,547	5,392	24,308	6,847	3,000
Tennessee—					
Morristown Normal and Industrial College.....	16,684	1,362	6,566	7,428	1,328
Walden University.....	8,400	2,000	6,400		
Texas—					
Samuel Huston College.....	14,803	4,053	4,429	6,321	
Wiley College.....	10,420	4,870	4,950	600	
Virginia, Virginia Collegiate and Industrial Institute.....	3,400	1,100	1,900	400	
<i>Methodist Episcopal Church South:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school.....	23,050	650	18,500	2,500	1,400
Georgia, Paine College.....	23,050	650	18,500	2,500	1,400
<i>Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 12 schools, all large or important.....	42,975	1,983	38,502	642	1,848
Arkansas, Adeline Smith Home.....	2,257		2,257		
Florida, Boylan Home.....	6,281	948	5,310		23
Georgia—					
Haven and Speedwell Home.....	3,220		3,220		
Thayer Home.....	4,000		4,000		
Louisiana, Peck Home.....	3,171		2,916	255	
Mississippi, Rust Home.....	4,895		4,895		
North Carolina—					
Kent Home.....	2,635		1,860	75	700
Allen Industrial Home and School.....	4,853	495	4,174	184	
South Carolina, Browning Industrial Home and Mather Academy.....	5,373	540	4,680	28	125
Tennessee, New Jersey Home.....	2,595		1,495	100	1,000
Texas—					
Eliza Dee Home.....	1,387		1,387		
King Industrial Home.....	2,308		2,308		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Board of Missions for, of the Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 85 schools.....	\$200, 124	\$21, 022	\$115, 610	\$18, 289	\$45, 203
32 large or important schools.....	176, 946	16, 511	102, 218	15, 779	42, 438
53 small or less important schools.....	23, 178	4, 511	13, 392	2, 510	2, 765
Alabama—					
Barber Memorial Seminary.....	8, 791		8, 620	95	76
Miller Memorial School.....	1, 325	325	1, 000		
1 small or less important school.....					
Arkansas—					
Arkadelphia Academy.....	1, 425	200	1, 225		
Cotton Plant Academy.....	1, 318	200	1, 085		33
6 small or less important schools.....	3, 168	516	2, 412	200	40
Florida, 3 small or less important schools.....	1, 150	284	236		630
Georgia—					
Boggs Academy.....	1, 427	120	952	55	300
Gillespie Normal School.....	2, 200	140	1, 300	200	500
Haines Institute.....	8, 835	1, 690	4, 595	1, 561	989
Hodge Academy.....	700	250	450		
McClelland Academy.....	1, 500	250	1, 250		
Seldon Normal and Industrial Institute.....	3, 920	486	3, 013	277	144
Union Point Normal and Industrial School.....	500	134	366		
4 small or less important schools.....	1, 110	210	900		
Kentucky—					
Bowling Green Academy.....	2, 000	486	1, 514		
Fee Memorial Institute.....	1, 000	150	850		
Mississippi, Mary Holmes Seminary.....	6, 517		4, 280		2, 237
North Carolina—					
Albion Academy.....	6, 169	279	5, 109	781	
Biddle University.....	17, 121	379	12, 520		4, 222
Mary Potter Memorial School.....	4, 058	501	3, 517	40	
Scotia Seminary.....	12, 012	1, 300	9, 816	896	
11 small or less important schools.....	7, 986	1, 269	3, 332	2, 310	1, 075
Oklahoma, Alice Lee Elliott Memorial School.....	1, 976	400	1, 576		
South Carolina—					
Andrew Robertson Institute.....	805	245	560		
Brainerd Institute.....	6, 370	742	5, 628		
Coulter Memorial School.....	910	200	710		
Goodwill Parochial School.....	700	100	500		100
Harbison College.....	7, 169		7, 142		27
Kendall Institute.....	1, 107	119	945		43
13 small or less important schools.....	5, 846	1, 552	3, 574		720
Tennessee—					
Mayers Industrial School.....	1, 400	400	700	300	
Newton Normal School.....	2, 650	650	1, 475	375	150
Swift Memorial School.....	4, 100	600	3, 500		
5 small or less important schools.....	1, 902	272	1, 480		150
Texas, Mary Allen Seminary.....	10, 979	2, 237	7, 166		1, 576
Virginia—					
Danville High and Industrial School.....	2, 140	420	1, 720		
Ingleside Seminary.....	7, 759	1, 114	6, 574	23	48
10 small or less important schools.....	2, 016	408	1, 458		150
Northern States, Lincoln University.....	48, 063	2, 394	2, 500	11, 176	31, 993
<i>Southern Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school.....	7, 300	300	4, 000	3, 000	
Alabama, Stillman Institute.....	7, 300	300	4, 000	3, 000	

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>American Church Institute and Episcopal Board:</i>					
Total, 24 schools.....	\$118,526	\$8,873	\$70,646	\$31,347	\$7,660
10 large or important schools.....	109,181	6,737	64,816	30,535	7,093
14 small or less important schools.....	9,345	2,136	5,830	812	567
Alabama, St. Mark's Academic and Industrial Institute.....	4,485	1,234	2,995	35	221
Florida, 3 small or less important schools.....	1,835	310	1,525		
Georgia—					
Fort Valley High and Industrial School.....	12,448	748	500	9,757	1,443
St. Athanasius School.....	3,624	824	2,800		
3 small or less important schools.....	2,132	635	1,247	250	
Mississippi, Vicksburg Industrial School.....	2,514	203	2,300		11
North Carolina—					
St. Augustine's School.....	25,929		17,417	5,308	3,204
St. Michael's School.....	3,000	500	800	1,700	
3 small or less important schools.....	1,140	440	700		
South Carolina—					
St. Mary's School.....	1,200	500	700		
3 small or less important schools.....	2,776	451	1,758		567
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....	1,182	300	400	482	
Texas, St. Phillip's School.....	2,500		1,800	600	100
Virginia—					
Bishop Payne Divinity School.....	12,320		12,320		
St. Paul's Normal and Industrial School.....	41,161	2,728	23,184	13,135	2,114
1 small or less important school.....	280		200	80	
<i>Reformed Episcopal Church:</i>					
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....	300	200	100		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 1 large or important school.....	7,300	1,200	6,000	100	
Alabama, Knox Academy.....	7,300	1,200	6,000	100	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church:</i>					
Total 2 schools.....	12,404	120	8,950	2,006	1,328
Alabama, Oakwood Manual Training School.....	12,284		8,950	2,006	1,328
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.....	120	120			
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church:</i>					
Total, 15 schools.....	\$88,512	\$11,739	\$74,453	\$2,670	\$250
11 large or important schools.....	80,162	10,249	67,243	2,670	
4 smaller or less important schools.....	8,350	890	7,210		250
Alabama—					
Arlington Literary and Industrial School.....	5,723	500	5,223		
Camden Academy.....	3,075	75	3,000		
Canton Bend Industrial Missionary School.....	2,550	50	2,500		
Miller's Ferry Industrial School.....	6,000		4,700	1,300	
Midway Mission School.....	600	300	300		
Prairie Institute.....	2,700	229	2,471		
North Carolina, Henderson Normal Institute.....	8,500	500	8,000		
Tennessee—					
Knoxville College.....	25,479	4,800	19,450	1,220	
4 small or less important schools.....	8,350	890	7,210		250
Virginia—					
Thyne Institute.....	7,969	75	7,744	150	
Bluestone Mission.....	1,200		1,200		
Norfolk Mission College.....	16,375	3,720	12,655		
<i>Universalist Church:</i>					
Virginia, 1 smaller or less important school.....	1,200	200	800	200	

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Total, 354 schools</i>	\$13,822,451	\$10,582,719	\$3,062,588	\$177,144
160 large or important schools.....	13,474,871	10,385,139	2,912,588	177,144
194 small or less important schools.....	347,580	197,580	150,000	
<i>American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>				
Total, 24 schools, all large or important.....	3,870,744	3,301,623	487,364	81,757
Alabama, Selma University.....	83,000	83,000		
Arkansas, Arkansas Baptist College.....	90,000	90,000		
Florida, Florida Baptist Academy.....	80,158	75,000		5,158
Georgia—				
Americus Institute.....	36,400	36,400		
Jeruel Academy.....	11,000	11,000		
Morehouse College.....	182,139	155,200	21,800	5,139
Spelman Seminary.....	364,585	326,718	32,886	4,981
Walker Baptist College.....	27,500	27,500		
Kentucky, State University.....	60,000	60,000		
Louisiana—				
Coleman College.....	62,000	62,000		
Leland University.....	400,000	275,000	125,000	
Mississippi, Jackson College.....	100,000	100,000		
Missouri, Western College and Industrial Institute.....	20,000	20,000		
North Carolina—				
Shaw University.....	373,251	365,600		7,561
Thompson Institute.....	30,000	30,000		
Waters Normal Institute.....	30,000	30,000		
South Carolina, Benedict College.....	635,744	493,000	140,000	2,744
Tennessee—				
Roger Williams University.....	98,000	98,000		
Howe Bible and Normal Institute.....	19,500	19,500		
Texas, Bishop College.....	314,935	302,125	12,000	810
Virginia—				
Hartshorn Memorial College.....	150,000	150,000		
Tidewater Institute.....	5,000	5,000		
Virginia Union University.....	475,354	368,990	83,000	23,364
West Virginia, Storer College.....	222,178	157,500	72,678	32,000
<i>Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society:</i>				
Total, 1 large or important school.....	16,500	16,500		
South Carolina—Mather Academy.....	16,500	16,500		
<i>Catholic Board of Missions:</i>				
Total, 112 schools.....	491,000	491,000		
7 large or important schools.....	491,000	491,000		
105 small or less important schools.....				
Alabama—				
St. Joseph's Catholic School.....	25,000	25,000		
8 small or less important schools.....				
Arkansas, 3 small or less important schools.....				
Delaware, St. Joseph's Industrial School.....	75,000	75,000		
District of Columbia, 2 small or less important schools.....				
Florida, 7 small or less important schools.....				
Georgia, 7 small or less important schools.....				
Kentucky, 6 small or less important schools.....				
Louisiana, 25 small or less important schools.....				
Maryland, 4 small or less important schools.....				
Mississippi—				
Holy Ghost Catholic School.....	23,000	23,000		
St. Joseph's Parish School.....	20,000	20,000		
St. Mary's Commercial College.....	13,000	13,000		
10 small or less important schools.....				
North Carolina, 6 small or less important schools.....				
Oklahoma, 2 small or less important schools.....				

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Catholic Board of Missions—Continued.</i>				
South Carolina, 3 small or less important schools.				
Tennessee, 2 small or less important schools.				
Texas, 6 small or less important schools.				
Virginia—				
St. Emma Industrial and Agricultural College.	\$250,000	\$250,000		
St. Francis de Sales Institute.	85,000	85,000		
5 small or less important schools.				
Northern States, 9 small or less important schools.				
<i>Christian Advent Church:</i>				
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.	2,500	2,500		
<i>Christian Alliance:</i>				
Total, 1 large or important school.	33,000	33,000		
Virginia, Boydton Institute.	33,000	33,000		
<i>Christian Conventions (miscellaneous):</i>				
Total, 3 schools.	75,000	63,000		\$12,000
1 large or important school.	70,000	58,000		12,000
2 small or less important schools.	5,000	5,000		
North Carolina, Franklinton Christian College.	70,000	58,000		12,000
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.				
Texas, 1 small or less important school.	5,000	5,000		
<i>Christian Woman's Board of Missions:</i>				
Total, 5 schools.	184,602	184,602		
2 large or important schools.	177,852	177,852		
3 small or less important schools.	6,750	6,750		
Alabama, Alabama Christian Institute.	8,875	8,875		
Mississippi, Southern Christian Institute.	160,492	160,492		
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.	3,750	3,750		
Texas, 1 small or less important school.	3,000	3,000		
Virginia, Martinsville Christian Institute.	8,485	8,485		
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational):</i>				
Total, 29 schools, all large or important.	1,733,589	1,374,661	\$358,928	
Alabama—				
Burrell Normal School.	10,300	10,300		
Cotton Valley School.	5,650	5,650		
Emerson Institute.	33,000	33,000		
Lincoln Normal School.	27,600	27,600		
Talladega College.	458,016	289,091	168,928	
Trinity College.	12,200	12,200		
Florida, Pensenden Academy.	49,300	49,300		
Georgia—				
Albany Normal School.	11,700	11,700		
Allen Normal School.	19,200	19,200		
Ballard Normal School.	33,800	33,800		
Beach Institute.	17,000	17,000		
Dorchester Academy.	21,700	21,700		
Knox Institute.	30,500	30,500		
Kentucky, Chandler Normal School.	39,000	39,000		
Louisiana, Straight College.	150,000	150,000		
Mississippi—				
Girls' Industrial School of Mississippi.	20,900	20,900		
Mound Bayou Institute.	4,300	4,300		
Mount Hermon Seminary.	14,200	14,200		
Tougaloo College.	133,000	133,000		
North Carolina—				
Gregory Normal School.	21,500	21,500		
J. K. Brick Agricultural, Industrial, and Normal School.	343,800	153,800	190,000	
Lincoln Academy.	20,720	20,720		
Peabody Academy.	2,800	2,800		
Washburn Academy.	6,100	6,100		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>American Missionary Association (Congregational)—Con.</i>				
South Carolina—				
Avery Institute.....	\$28,600	\$28,600		
Brewer Normal Institute.....	25,300	25,300		
Tennessee, Le Moyne Institute.....	54,000	54,000		
Texas, Tillotson College.....	103,500	103,500		
Virginia, Gloucester High and Industrial School.....	35,900	35,900		
<i>Friends Societies:</i>				
Total, 8 schools.....	915,900	378,900	\$537,000	
6 large or important schools.....	730,900	343,000	387,000	
2 small or less important schools.....	185,000	35,000	150,000	
Arkansas, Southland College.....	79,400	44,400	35,000	
North Carolina, High Point Normal and Industrial Institute.....	39,000	39,000		
South Carolina—				
Laing School.....	23,000	11,000	12,000	
Schofield School.....	157,000	60,000	97,000	
Virginia, Christiansburg Normal and Industrial Institute.....	157,500	89,500	68,000	
Northern States—				
Cheney Training School.....	275,000	100,000	175,000	
2 small or less important schools.....	185,000	35,000	150,000	
<i>Lutheran Board of Missions:</i>				
Total, 9 schools.....	72,000	72,000		
1 large or important school.....	46,500	46,500		
8 small or less important schools.....	25,500	25,500		
North Carolina, Immanuel Lutheran College.....	40,500	40,500		
Louisiana, 8 small or less important schools.....	25,500	25,500		
<i>Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>				
Total, 18 schools, all large or important.....	2,605,687	1,824,778	742,874	\$38,035
Alabama, Central Alabama Institute.....	42,500	42,500		
Arkansas, Philander Smith College.....	72,300	72,300		
Florida, Cookman Institute.....	101,578	101,578		
Georgia—				
Clark University.....	320,200	102,500	226,700	
Gammon Theological Seminary.....	530,000	110,000	420,000	
Louisiana—				
Gilbert Industrial Institute.....	60,000	60,000		
New Orleans College.....	159,000	150,000		
Maryland, Morgan College.....	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Mississippi—				
Haven Institute.....	35,000	35,000		
Rust College.....	111,200	111,200		
Missouri, George R. Smith College.....	59,000	59,000		
North Carolina, Bennett College.....	44,500	44,500		
South Carolina, Claflin University.....	362,035	284,000	40,000	38,035
Tennessee—				
Morristown Normal and Industrial College.....	169,000	169,000		
Walden University.....	105,000	105,000		
Texas—				
Samuel Huston College.....	96,000	96,000		
Wiley College.....	197,000	197,000		
Virginia, Virginia Collegiate and Industrial Institute.....	35,500	35,500		
<i>Methodist Episcopal Church South:</i>				
Total, 1 large or important school.....	125,000	100,000	25,000	
Georgia, Paine College.....	125,000	100,000	25,000	

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>				
Total, 12 schools, all large or important.....	\$300,500	\$287,000		\$22,500
Arkansas, Adeline Smith Home.....	14,300	14,300		
Florida, Boylan Home.....	73,000	73,000		
Georgia—				
Haven and Speedwell Home.....	1,500	1,500		
Thayer Home.....	13,500	13,500		
Louisiana, Peck Home.....	45,000	45,000		
Mississippi, Rust Home.....	32,000	32,000		
North Carolina—				
Kent Home.....	13,000	13,000		
Allen Industrial Home and School.....	20,000	20,000		
South Carolina, Browning Industrial Home and Mather Academy.....	75,500	53,000		22,500
Tennessee, New Jersey Home.....	8,700	8,700		
Texas—				
Eliza Dee Home.....	6,000	6,000		
King Industrial Home.....	7,000	7,000		
<i>Board of Missions for, of the Presbyterian Church:</i>				
Total, 85 schools.....	2,151,321	1,345,834	\$804,587	900
32 large or important schools.....	2,080,141	1,274,654	804,587	900
53 small or less important schools.....	71,180	71,180		
Alabama—				
Barber Memorial Seminary.....	55,000	55,000		
Miller Memorial School.....				
1 small or less important school.....				
Arkansas—				
Arkadelphia Academy.....	8,300	8,300		
Cotton Plant Academy.....	18,550	18,550		
6 small or less important schools.....	13,500	13,500		
Florida, 3 small or less important schools.....	4,000	4,000		
Georgia—				
Boggs Academy.....	14,000	14,000		
Gillespie Normal School.....	2,700	2,700		
Haines Institute.....	50,000	50,000		
Hodge Academy.....	2,000	2,000		
McClelland Academy.....	3,200	3,200		
Seldon Normal and Industrial Institute.....	15,544	15,544		
Union Point Normal and Industrial School.....	4,000	4,000		
4 small or less important schools.....				
Kentucky—				
Bowling Green Academy.....	5,600	5,600		
Fee Memorial Institute.....	5,450	5,450		
Mississippi, Mary Holmes Seminary.....	71,000	51,000	20,000	
North Carolina—				
Albion Academy.....	42,700	42,700		
Biddle University.....	293,310	242,285	51,025	
Mary Potter Memorial School.....	62,925	62,925		
Scotia Seminary.....	60,100	60,100		
11 small or less important schools.....	19,630	19,630		
Oklahoma, Alice Lee Elliott Memorial School.....	8,600	8,000		
South Carolina—				
Andrew Robertson Institute.....	9,000	9,000		
Brainerd Institute.....	45,000	45,000		
Coulter Memorial School.....	5,100	5,100		
Goodwill Parochial School.....	3,000	3,000		
Harbison College.....	54,700	54,700		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Board of Missions for, of the Presbyterian Church—Con.</i>				
South Carolina—Continued.				
Kendall Institute.....	\$10,900	\$10,900		
13 small or less important schools.....	30,350	30,350		
Tennessee:				
Mayers Industrial School.....	6,000	6,000		
Newton Normal School.....	14,250	14,250		
Swift Memorial School.....	66,500	41,000	\$25,500	
5 small or less important schools.....	1,200	1,200		
Texas, Mary Allen Seminary.....	60,000	60,000		
Virginia—				
Danville High and Industrial School.....	5,000	5,000		
Ingleside Seminary.....	36,900	35,000	1,000	\$900
10 small or less important schools.....	2,500	2,500		
Northern States, Lincoln University.....	1,041,412	334,350	707,062	
<i>Southern Presbyterian Church:</i>				
Total, 1 large or important school.....	51,000	51,000		
Alabama, Stillman Institute.....	51,000	51,000		
<i>American Church Institute and Episcopal Board:</i>				
Total, 24 schools.....	628,743	499,956	106,835	21,952
10 large or important schools.....	604,543	475,756	106,835	21,952
14 small or less important schools.....	24,200	24,200		
Alabama, St. Mark's Academic and Industrial Institute.....	22,000	22,000		
Florida, 3 small or less important schools.....	3,500	3,500		
Georgia—				
Fort Valley High and Industrial School.....	46,500	46,500		
St. Athanasius School.....	10,000	10,000		
3 small or less important schools.....	10,000	10,000		
Mississippi, Vicksburg Industrial School.....	5,000	5,000		
North Carolina—				
St. Augustine's School.....	200,000	163,000	37,000	
St. Michael's School.....	10,000	10,000		
3 small or less important schools.....	1,500	1,500		
South Carolina—				
St. Mary's School.....	8,000	8,000		
3 small or less important schools.....	4,000	4,000		
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....	4,000	4,000		
Texas, St. Phillip's School.....	25,000	25,000		
Virginia—				
Bishop Payne Divinity School.....	48,000	25,000	23,000	
St. Paul's Normal and Industrial School.....	230,043	161,256	46,835	21,952
1 small or less important school.....	1,200	1,200		
<i>Reformed Episcopal Church:</i>				
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....	2,000	2,000		
<i>Reformed Presbyterian Church:</i>				
Total, 1 large or important school.....	52,500	52,500		
Alabama, Knox Academy.....	52,500	52,500		
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church:</i>				
Total, schools.....	42,765	42,765		
Alabama, Oakwood Manual Training School.....	42,765	42,765		
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.....				
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church:</i>				
Total, 15 schools.....	\$455,600	\$455,600		
11 large or important schools.....	433,650	433,650		
4 smaller or less important schools.....	21,950	21,950		

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table IV.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY WHITE DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS.—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church—Continued.</i>				
<i>Alabama—</i>				
Arlington Literary and Industrial School	\$28,000	\$28,000		
Camden Academy	9,500	9,500		
Canton Bend Industrial Missionary School	5,550	5,550		
Millers Ferry Industrial School	17,800	17,800		
Midway Mission School	1,000	1,000		
Prairie Institute	11,800	11,800		
North Carolina, Henderson Normal Institute	50,400	50,400		
<i>Tennessee—</i>				
Knoxville College	175,000	175,000		
4 small or less important schools	21,950	21,950		
<i>Virginia—</i>				
Thyne Institute	32,600	32,600		
Bluestone Mission	2,000	2,000		
Norfolk Mission College	100,000	100,000		
<i>Universalist Church:</i>				
Virginia, 1 small or less important school	3,500	3,500		

Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>Total, 153 schools</i>		17,299	14,686	2,498	115
60 large or important schools		9,563	7,125	2,323	115
93 small or less important schools		7,736	7,561	175	
<i>Baptist local conventions:</i>					
Total, 110 schools		11,250	10,324	926	
31 large or important schools		4,151	3,391	760	
79 small or less important schools		7,099	6,933	166	
<i>Alabama—</i>					
Livingston Colored Normal and Industrial Institute	Sumpter	106	106		
Union Springs Normal School	Bullock	365	330	35	
12 small or less important schools		1,142	1,139	3	
<i>Arkansas—</i>					
Consolidated White River Academy	Monroe	87	65	22	
Immanuel Industrial Institute	Arkansas	126	120	6	
South East Baptist Industrial Academy	Chicot	105	97	8	
4 small or less important schools		288	272	16	
District of Columbia—National Training School for Women and Girls		71	42	29	
<i>Florida—</i>					
Florida Institute	Suwanee	262	233	29	
2 small or less important schools		120	120		
<i>Georgia—</i>					
Cabin Creek High School	Spalding	135	130	5	
Central City College	Bibb	65	40	25	
Rome High and Industrial School	Floyd	79	61	18	
9 small or less important schools		672	672		
Kentucky, 2 small or less important schools		18	18		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Ele- mentary.	Sec- ondary.	Col- lege.
<i>Baptist local conventions—Continued.</i>					
<i>Louisiana—</i>					
Howe Institute	East Baton Rouge	135	125	10	
Israel Academy	Assumption	215	215		
Mansfield Academy	De Soto	201	182	19	
13 small or less important schools		1,677	1,626	51	
<i>Maryland, 2 small or less important schools</i>					
<i>Mississippi—</i>					
Baptist Industrial High School	De Soto	70	70		
Natchez College	Adams	174	133	41	
Sardis Industrial College	Panola	109	89	20	
9 small or less important schools		1,484	1,407	77	
<i>North Carolina—</i>					
Rich Square Academy	Northampton	75	67	8	
14 small or less important schools		734	726	8	
<i>South Carolina—</i>					
Bettis Academy	Edgefield	231	187	44	
Friendship Normal and Industrial Col- lege.	York	155	136	19	
Morris College	Sumter	160	106	54	
Seneca Institute	Oconee	127	78	49	
5 small or less important schools		529	529		
Tennessee, Nelson-Mary Academy	Jefferson	77	77		
<i>Texas—</i>					
Central Texas College	McLennan	174	111	63	
East Texas Academy	Smith	150	122	28	
Port Worth Industrial and Mechanical College.	Tarrant	102	66	36	
Guadaloupe College	Guadaloupe	86	57	29	
Houston College	Harris	109	91	18	
2 small or less important schools		167	167		
<i>Virginia—</i>					
Corey Memorial Institute	Norfolk	80	60	20	
Pittsylvania Normal, Industrial, and Collegiate Institute.	Pittsylvania	45	30	15	
Rappahannock Industrial Academy	Essex	66	66		
Virginia Theological Seminary and College.	Campbell	200	99	101	
5 small or less important schools		242	241	1	
<i>Free Will Baptist Church:</i>					
Total, 1 large or more important school		60	58	2	
North Carolina, Kinston College.	Lenoir	60	58	2	
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 17 schools		3,212	2,096	1,028	88
13 large or important schools		3,111	1,996	1,027	88
4 small or less important schools		101	100	1	
Alabama, Payne University	Dallas	265	208	57	
Arkansas, Shorter College	Pulaski	219	128	91	
<i>Florida—</i>					
Edward Waters College	Duval	319	240	79	
1 small or less important school		24	24		
<i>Georgia—</i>					
Morris Brown University	Fulton	508	235	263	10
Paine Institute	Randolph	97	87	10	
Central Park Normal and Industrial Institute.	Chatbam	105	80	25	
<i>Kentucky, 1 small or less important school</i>					
Louisiana, Lampton Literary and Indus- trial College.	Rapides	33	32	1	
		142	116	26	

Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Location (county).	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church—Continued.</i>					
<i>Mississippi—</i>					
Campbell College.....	Hinds.....	250	170	80	
1 small or less important school.....		32	32		
North Carolina, Kittrell College.....	Vance.....	176	124	52	
<i>South Carolina—</i>					
Allen University.....	Richland.....	450	304	146	
1 small or less important school.....		12	12		
Tennessee, Turner Normal School.....	Bedford.....	101	78	23	
Texas, Paul Quinn College.....	McLennan.....	286	213	60	13
Northern States, Wilberforce University.....	Ohio ¹	193	13	115	65
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church:</i>					
Total, 11 schools.....		1,207	923	267	17
9 large or important schools.....		1,159	875	267	17
2 small or less important schools.....		48	48		
Alabama, Lomax Hannon High School.....	Butler.....	137	113	24	
Arkansas, Walters Institute.....	Bradley.....	77	68	9	
Kentucky, Atkinson College.....	Hopkins.....	44	24	20	
<i>North Carolina—</i>					
Edenton's Normal and Industrial College.....	Chowan.....	109	93	16	
Eastern North Carolina Industrial Academy.....	Craven.....	134	120	14	
Livingstone College.....	Rowan.....	191	48	126	17
1 small or less important school.....		30	30		
<i>South Carolina—</i>					
Lancaster Normal and Industrial College.....	Lancaster.....	239	218	21	
Clinton College.....	York.....	183	155	28	
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....		18	18		
Virginia, Dinwiddie Agricultural and Industrial School.....	Dinwiddie.....	45	36	9	
<i>Colored Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 9 schools.....		1,313	1,036	267	10
Six large or important schools.....		1,082	805	267	10
Three small or less important schools.....		231	231		
<i>Alabama:</i>					
Miles Memorial College.....	Jefferson.....	220	165	55	
One small or less important school.....		180	80		
<i>Georgia:</i>					
Holsey Academy.....	Crisp.....	128	120	8	
One small or less important school.....		20	20		
Louisiana, Homer College.....	Claiborne.....	164	146	18	
Mississippi, Mississippi Industrial College.....	Marshall.....	242	200	42	
Oklahoma, 1 small or less important school.....		131	131		
Tennessee, Lane College.....	Madison.....	218	139	69	10
Texas, Texas College.....	Smith.....	110	35	75	
<i>Methodist Episcopal local conventions:</i>					
Total, 2 small or less important schools.....		22	22		
Florida, 1 small or less important school.....		22	22		
North Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....					
<i>Afro-American Presbyterian Church:</i>					
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....		25	25		
<i>Church of Christ Sanctified:</i>					
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.....		130	122	8	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church (local):</i>					
Georgia, 1 small or less important school.....		80	80		

¹ State.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
Total, 153 schools.....	828	2	826	331	497	727	44	4	53
60 large or important schools.....	524	2	522	228	296	428	39	4	53
93 small or less important schools.....	304		304	103	201	299	5		
Baptist local conventions:									
Total, 110 schools.....	474	2	472	159	315	448	20	2	7
31 large or important schools.....	202	2	200	67	135	177	16	2	7
79 small or less important schools.....	272		272	92	180	268	4		
Alabama—									
Livingston Colored Normal and Industrial Institute.....	3		3	1	2	3			
Union Springs Normal School.....	5		5	1	4	5			
12 small or less important schools.....	43		43	16	27	43			
Arkansas—									
Consolidated White River Academy.....	4		4	1	3	4			
Immanuel Industrial Institute.....	4		4	1	3	4			
South East Baptist Industrial Academy.....	6		6	2	4	6			
4 small or less important schools.....	13		13	4	9	13			
District of Columbia—National Training School for Women and Girls.....	11	2	9		11	8	2	1	
Florida—									
Florida Institute.....	8		8	3	5	8			
2 small or less important schools.....	4		4	2	2	4			
Georgia—									
Cabin Creek High School.....	3		3	1	2	3			
Central City College.....	4		4	2	2	4			
Rome High and Industrial School.....	6		6	3	3	5	1		
9 small or less important schools.....	34		34	9	25	31	3		
Kentucky, 2 small or less important schools.....	2		2	1	1	2			
Louisiana—									
Howe Institute.....	5		5	1	4	5			
Israel Academy.....	3		3		3	3			
Mansfield Academy.....	7		7	2	5	5	2		
13 small or less important schools.....	47		47	17	30	47			
Maryland, 2 small or less important schools.....	5		5	5		5			
Mississippi—									
Baptist Industrial High School.....	4		4	1	3	4			
Natchez College.....	5		5	2	3	4	1		
Sardis Industrial College.....	5		5	1	4	4	1		
9 small or less important schools.....	44		44	13	31	44			
North Carolina—									
Rich Square Academy.....	4		4	1	3	4			
14 small or less important schools.....	35		35	8	27	35			
South Carolina—									
Bettis Academy.....	12		12	4	8	9	1	1	
Friendship Normal and Industrial College.....	8		8	4	4	8			
Morris College.....	12		12	3	9	12			
Seneca Institute.....	6		6	2	4	6			
5 small or less important schools.....	14		14	5	9	14			

Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
<i>Baptist local conventions—Continued.</i>								
Tennessee, Nelson-Mary Academy...	5		5	1	4	5		
Texas—								
Central Texas College.....	12		12	4	8	9	1	2
East Texas Academy.....	8		8	3	5	7	1	
Fort Worth Industrial and Mechanical College.....	7		7	3	4	7		
Guadalupe College.....	8		8	3	5	6	2	
Houston College.....	9		9	4	5	6	2	1
2 small or less important schools.....	12		12	3	9	11	1	
Virginia—								
Corey Memorial Institute.....	5		5	1	4	5		
Pittsylvania Normal, Industrial, and Collegiate Institute.....	3		3	2	1	3		
Rappahannock Industrial Academy.....	5		5	1	4	3	1	1
Virginia Theological Seminary and College.....	15		15	9	6	12	1	2
5 small or less important schools.....	19		19	9	10	19		
<i>Free Will Baptist Church:</i>								
Total, 1 large or more important school.....	4		4	2	2	4		
North Carolina, Kinston College.....	4		4	2	2	4		
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>								
Total, 17 schools.....	187		187	98	89	143	9	34
13 large or important schools.....	181		181	95	86	137	9	34
4 small or less important schools.....	6		6	3	3	6		
Alabama, Payne University.....	13		13	4	9	12		1
Arkansas, Shorter College.....	14		14	8	6	13	1	
Florida—								
Edward Waters College.....	16		16	8	8	16		
1 small or less important school.....	1		1		1	1		
Georgia—								
Morris Brown University.....	29		29	16	13	14		15
Paine Institute.....	6		6	2	4	6		
Central Park Normal and Industrial Institute.....	6		6	3	3	6		
Kentucky, 1 small or less important school.....	3		3	1	2	3		
Louisiana, Lampton Literary and Industrial College.....	6		6	3	3	6		
Mississippi—								
Campbell College.....	14		14	7	7	11	1	2
1 small or less important school.....	1		1	1		1		
North Carolina, Kittrell College.....	12		12	5	7	10	2	
South Carolina—								
Allen University.....	20		20	9	11	17	2	1
1 small or less important school.....	1		1	1		1		
Tennessee, Turner Normal School.....	11		11	5	6	6	2	3
Texas, Paul Quinn College.....	15		15	9	6	11	1	2
Northern States, Wilberforce University.....	19		19	10	9	9		10
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church:</i>								
Total, 11 schools.....	77		77	36	41	62	9	5
9 large or important schools.....	74		74	35	39	59	9	5
2 small or less important schools.....	3		3	1	2	3		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Fe- male.	Aca- demic.	Indus- trial.	Agri- cultural.
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church—</i>								
Continued.								
Alabama, Lomax Hannon High School.....	8		8	3	5	7	1	
Arkansas, Walters Institute.....	5		5	3	2	4	1	
Kentucky, Atkinson College.....	6		6	2	4	6		
North Carolina—								
Edenton's Normal and Industrial College.....	5		5	1	4	5		
Eastern North Carolina Industrial Academy.....	6		6	3	3	5	1	
Livingstone College.....	20		20	12	8	11	3	1
1 small or less important school.	1		1		1	1		
South Carolina—								
Lancaster Normal and Industrial College.....	8		8	4	4	8		
Clinton College.....	9		9	3	6	8	1	
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....	2		2	1	1	2		
Virginia, Dinwiddie Agricultural and Industrial School.....	7		7	4	3	5	2	
<i>Colored Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>								
Total, 9 schools.....	72		72	32	40	60	5	7
Six large or important schools.....	63		63	29	34	51	5	7
Three small or less important schools.....	9		9	3	6	9		
Alabama:								
Miles Memorial College.....	14		14	6	8	11	1	2
One small or less important school.....	3		3	1	2	3		
Georgia:								
Holsey Academy.....	5		5	2	3	5		
One small or less important school.....	2		2		2	2		
Louisiana, Homer College.....	7		7	3	4	7		
Mississippi, Mississippi Industrial College.....	12		12	4	8	10	1	1
Oklahoma, 1 small or less important school.....	4		4	2	2	4		
Tennessee, Lane College.....	15		15	8	7	12	2	1
Texas, Texas College.....	10		10	6	4	6	1	3
<i>Methodist Episcopal local conventions:</i>								
Total, 2 small or less important schools.....	4		4	1	3	4		
Florida, 1 small or less important school.....	4		4	1	3	4		
North Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....								
<i>Afro-American Presbyterian Church:</i>								
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....	2		2	1	1	2		
<i>Church of Christ Sanctified:</i>								
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.....	6		6	2	4	5	1	
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church (local):</i>								
Georgia, 1 small or less important school.....	2		2		2	2		

Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED-BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Total, 153 schools</i>	\$380,933	\$74,966	\$224,456	\$38,903	\$42,608
60 large or important schools.....	288,459	51,448	171,425	31,875	33,711
93 small or less important schools.....	92,474	23,518	53,031	7,028	8,897
<i>Baptist local conventions:</i>					
<i>Total, 110 schools</i>	181,914	41,372	112,142	14,564	13,836
31 large or important schools.....	99,040	19,604	64,261	9,436	5,739
79 small or less important schools.....	82,874	21,768	47,881	5,128	8,097
Alabama—					
Livingston Colored Normal and Industrial Institute.....	875		350	425	100
Union Springs Normal School.....	1,600	400	1,200		
12 small or less important schools.....	11,612	1,979	8,668	594	371
Arkansas—					
Consolidated White River Academy.....	2,390	300	2,015	75	
Immanuel Industrial Institute.....	1,675	1,105	255		315
South East Baptist Industrial Academy.....	2,136	1,447	689		
4 small or less important schools.....	4,725	1,300	3,175	150	100
District of Columbia—National Training School for Women and Girls.....	8,981	3,000	5,720		261
Florida—					
Florida Institute.....	3,521	923	1,959		639
2 small or less important schools.....	1,575	200	1,200	175	
Georgia—					
Cabin Creek High School.....	1,285	685	600		
Central City College.....	1,672	307		1,230	135
Rome High and Industrial School.....	2,600	270	1,500	830	
9 small or less important schools.....	8,667	2,760	4,132	125	1,650
Kentucky, 2 small or less important schools.....	1,500	750		750	
Louisiana—					
Howe Institute.....	2,100	900	1,200		
Israel Academy.....	855	380	200		275
Mansfield Academy.....	3,200	200	1,000	1,000	1,000
13 small or less important schools.....	15,396	4,985	9,236	250	925
Maryland—					
2 small or less important schools.....					
Mississippi—					
Baptist Industrial High School.....	900	100	700		100
Natchez College.....	4,044	544	3,500		
Sardis Industrial College.....	1,623	402	675		486
9 small or less important schools.....	13,184	4,836	6,403	145	1,800
North Carolina—					
Rich Square Academy.....	1,300			572	728
14 small or less important schools.....	14,340	2,311	8,922	2,131	976
South Carolina—					
Bettis Academy.....	2,817		1,400	1,100	317
Friendship Normal and Industrial College.....	4,900	1,008	3,500	100	292
Morris College.....	3,525	1,000	2,525		
Seneca Institute.....	850	300	500		50
5 small or less important schools.....	3,100	690	1,935		475
Tennessee, Nelson-Mary Academy.....	1,000	100	600		300
Texas—					
Central Texas College.....	5,186		5,186		
East Texas Academy.....	5,500	1,500	4,000		
Fort Worth Industrial and Mechanical College.....	4,200	1,200	3,000		
Guadalupe College.....	5,000	400	4,000		600
Houston College.....	4,254	300	850	3,104	
5 small or less important schools.....	4,000	500	1,700		1,800

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Baptist local conventions—Continued.</i>					
Virginia—					
Corey Memorial Institute.....	\$1,656	\$456	\$1,200		
Pittsylvania Normal, Industrial, and Collegiate Institute.....	1,561	495	925		\$141
Rappahannock Industrial Academy.....	1,412	400	1,012		
Virginia Theological Seminary and College.....	16,422	1,422	14,000	\$1,000	
5 small or less important schools.....	4,775	1,457	2,510	808	
<i>Free Will Baptist Church:</i>					
Total, 1 large or more important school.....	1,700	200		1,500	
North Carolina, Kinston College.....	1,700	200		1,500	
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 17 schools.....	129,778	23,285	75,944	10,070	20,479
13 large or important schools.....	127,428	22,985	73,894	10,070	20,479
4 small or less important schools.....	2,350	300	2,050		
Alabama, Payne University.....	6,500	1,500	5,000		
Arkansas, Shorter College.....	8,416	2,516	900	5,000	
Florida—					
Edward Waters College.....	18,701	200	13,700	56	3,745
1 small or less important school.....	200		200		
Georgia—					
Morris Brown University.....	12,583	2,904	7,863	150	1,666
Paine Institute.....	2,050	300	1,750		
Central Park Normal and Industrial Institute.....	2,815	250	2,000	265	300
Kentucky, 1 small or less important school.....	1,500	150	1,350		
Louisiana, Lampton Literary and Industrial College.....	1,500	300	1,000		200
Mississippi—					
Campbell College.....	8,000	1,000	7,000		
1 small or less important school.....	450	100	350		
North Carolina, Kittrell College.....	9,046	1,000	7,901	145	
South Carolina—					
Allen University.....	16,702	2,000	12,000	2,000	702
1 small or less important school.....	200	50	150		
Tennessee, Turner Normal School.....	4,737	237	4,000	500	
Texas, Paul Quinn College.....	8,064	3,248	1,016		3,800
Northern States, Wilberforce University.....	28,314	6,530	9,764	1,954	10,066
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 11 schools.....	37,600	4,039	19,088	10,869	3,604
9 large or important schools.....	36,850	3,889	18,488	10,869	3,604
2 small or less important schools.....	750	150	600		
Alabama, Lomax Hannon High School.....	4,074	949	2,585	500	40
Arkansas, Walters Institute.....	1,047	447	600		
Kentucky, Atkinson College.....	2,821	277	1,501	1,043	
North Carolina—					
Edenton Normal and Industrial College.....	1,417	200	792	425	
Eastern North Carolina Industrial Academy.....	1,656	100	1,450	100	
Livingstone College.....	19,201	786	8,386	8,101	1,928
1 small or less important school.....	250	50	200		
South Carolina—					
Lancaster Normal and Industrial College.....	1,900	400	400	200	900
Clinton College.....	1,740	480	524		736
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.....	500	100	400		
Virginia, Dinwiddie Agricultural and Industrial School.....	3,000	250	2,250	500	

¹ Estimated.

Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>Colored Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>					
Total, 9 schools.....	\$25,991	\$5,470	\$16,632		\$3,889
Six large or important schools.....	23,441	4,770	14,782		3,889
Three small or less important schools.....	2,550	700	1,850		
<i>Alabama:</i>					
Miles Memorial College.....	3,004	1,589	1,390		25
One small or less important school.....	950	300	650		
<i>Georgia:</i>					
Holsey Academy.....	2,000	500	1,500		
One small or less important school.....	300	100	200		
Louisiana, Homer College.....	2,400	400	2,000		
Mississippi, Mississippi Industrial College.....	3,672	2,016	1,278		378
Oklahoma, 1 small or less important school.....	1,300	300	1,000		
Tennessee, Lane College.....	8,600		5,114		3,486
Texas, Texas College.....	3,765	265	3,500		
<i>Methodist Episcopal local conventions:</i>					
Total, 2 small or less important schools.....	450	50	400		
Florida, 1 small or less important school.....	450	50	400		
North Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....					
<i>Afro-American Presbyterian Church:</i>					
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.....	1,500	100		\$1,400	
<i>Church of Christ Sanctified:</i>					
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.....	1,500	200		500	800
<i>Seventh Day Adventist Church (local):</i>					
Georgia, 1 small or less important school.....	500	250	250		

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	School plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Total, 153 schools.....</i>	\$2,305,054	\$2,168,717	\$74,837	\$61,500
60 large or important schools.....	1,976,604	1,840,267	74,837	61,500
93 small or less important schools.....	328,450	328,450		
<i>Baptist local conventions:</i>				
Total, 110 schools.....	821,295	821,295		
31 large or important schools.....	539,545	539,545		
79 small or less important schools.....	281,750	281,750		
<i>Alabama:</i>				
Livingston Colored Normal and Industrial Institute.....	3,000	3,000		
Union Springs Normal School.....	4,300	4,300		
12 small or less important schools.....	46,000	46,000		
<i>Arkansas:</i>				
Consolidated White River Academy.....	20,000	20,000		
Immanuel Industrial Institute.....	5,000	5,000		
South East Baptist Industrial Academy.....	7,000	7,000		
4 small or less important schools.....	8,350	8,350		
District of Columbia—National Training School for Women and Girls.....	42,500	42,500		
<i>Florida:</i>				
Florida Institute.....	25,000	25,000		
2 small or less important schools.....	10,000	10,000		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	School plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>Baptist local conventions—Continued.</i>				
Georgia—				
Cabin Creek High School.....	\$8,000	\$8,000		
Central City College.....	16,000	16,000		
Rome High and Industrial School.....	2,500	2,500		
9 small or less important schools.....	25,900	25,900		
Kentucky, 2 small or less important schools.....	8,200	8,200		
Louisiana—				
Howe Institute.....	14,000	14,000		
Israel Academy.....	1,400	1,400		
Mansfield Academy.....	5,900	5,900		
13 small or less important schools.....	54,000	54,000		
Maryland—				
2 small or less important schools.....				
Mississippi—				
Baptist Industrial High School.....	9,000	9,000		
Natchez College.....	36,200	36,200		
Sardis Industrial College.....	3,650	3,650		
9 small or less important schools.....	32,740	32,740		
North Carolina—				
Rich Square Academy.....	5,000	5,000		
14 small or less important schools.....	55,300	55,300		
South Carolina—				
Bettis Academy.....	32,500	32,500		
Friendship Normal and Industrial College.....	13,500	13,500		
Morris College.....	25,000	25,000		
Seneca Institute.....	11,500	11,500		
5 small or less important schools.....	13,500	13,500		
Tennessee, Nelson-Mary Academy.....	5,000	5,000		
Texas—				
Central Texas College.....	40,000	40,000		
East Texas Academy.....	22,225	22,225		
Fort Worth Industrial and Mechanical College.....	16,500	16,500		
Guadalupe College.....	50,000	50,000		
Houston College.....	30,000	30,000		
2 small or less important schools.....	9,000	9,000		
Virginia—				
Corey Memorial Institute.....	10,500	10,500		
Pittsylvania Normal, Industrial, and Collegiate Institute.....	5,120	5,120		
Rappahannock Industrial Academy.....	13,250	13,250		
Virginia Theological Seminary and College.....	56,000	56,000		
5 small or less important schools.....	18,760	18,760		
<i>Free Will Baptist Church:</i>				
Total, 1 large or more important school.....	15,000	15,000		
North Carolina, Kinston College.....	15,000	15,000		
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>				
Total, 17 schools.....	800,609	730,772	\$69,837	
13 large or important schools.....	790,109	720,272	69,837	
4 small or less important schools.....	10,500	10,500		
Alabama, Payne University.....	35,600	35,600		
Arkansas, Shorter College.....	29,622	29,622		
Florida—				
Edward Waters College.....	43,000	43,000		
1 small or less important school.....	1,500	1,500		
Georgia—				
Morris Brown University.....	150,000	125,000	25,000	
Paine Institute.....	10,000	10,000		
Central Park Normal and Industrial Institute.....	20,300	20,300		

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Table V.—SCHOOLS MAINTAINED BY COLORED DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS—Continued.

Name of school.	Value of property.			
	Total.	School plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Church—Continued.</i>				
Kentucky, 1 small or less important school.	\$7,000	\$7,000		
Louisiana, Lampton Literary and Industrial College.	10,150	10,150		
Mississippi—				
Campbell College.	45,500	34,500	\$11,000	
1 small or less important school.	1,500	1,500		
North Carolina, Kittrell College.	61,500	61,500		
South Carolina—				
Allen University.	82,000	82,000		
1 small or less important school.	500	500		
Tennessee, Turner Normal School.	48,400	45,700	2,700	
Texas, Paul Quinn College.	97,000	97,000		
Northern States, Wilberforce University.	157,037	125,900	31,137	
<i>African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church:</i>				
Total, 11 schools.	316,950	250,450	5,000	\$61,500
9 large or important schools.	309,950	243,450	5,000	61,500
2 small or less important schools.	7,000	7,000		
Alabama, Lomax Hannon High School.	25,450	25,450		
Arkansas, Walters Institute.	6,200	6,200		
Kentucky, Atkinson College.	12,600	12,600		
North Carolina—				
Edenton's Normal and Industrial College.	3,550	3,550		
Eastern North Carolina Industrial Academy.	7,000	7,000		
Livingstone College.	207,400	140,900	5,000	61,500
1 small or less important school.	1,500	1,500		
South Carolina—				
Lancaster Normal and Industrial College.	14,000	14,000		
Clinton College.	15,000	15,000		
Tennessee, 1 small or less important school.	5,500	5,500		
Virginia, Dinwiddie Agricultural and Industrial School.	18,750	18,750		
<i>Colored Methodist Episcopal Church:</i>				
Total, 9 schools.	328,200	328,200		
6 large or important schools.	322,000	322,000		
3 small or less important schools.	6,200	6,200		
Alabama:				
Miles Memorial College.	58,000	58,000		
1 small or less important school.	2,400	2,400		
Georgia:				
Holsey Academy.	6,000	6,000		
1 small or less important school.	2,500	2,500		
Louisiana, Homer College.	12,000	12,000		
Mississippi, Mississippi Industrial College.	87,000	87,000		
Oklahoma, 1 small or less important school.	1,300	1,300		
Tennessee, Lané College.	89,000	89,000		
Texas, Texas College.	70,000	70,000		
<i>Methodist Episcopal local conventions:</i>				
Total, 2 small or less important schools.	6,000	6,000		
Florida, 1 small or less important school.	1,500	1,500		
North Carolina, 1 small or less important school.	4,500	4,500		
<i>Afro-American Presbyterian Church:</i>				
South Carolina, 1 small or less important school.	7,000	7,000		
<i>Church of Christ Sanctified:</i>				
Mississippi, 1 small or less important school.	10,000	10,000		
<i>Seventh-Day Adventist Church (local):</i>				
Georgia, 1 small or less important school.				

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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TABLE VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES.

Alabama.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	74	13,797	12,308	1,444	45
Large or important schools.....	40	10,318	8,836	1,437	45
Small or less important schools.....	34	3,479	3,472	7
<i>Schools under public control</i>	2	978	754	224
Land-grant school.....	1	264	179	85
State school.....	1	714	575	139
<i>Schools under private control</i>	72	12,819	11,554	1,220	45
Large or important schools.....	38	9,340	8,082	1,213	45
Small or less important schools.....	34	3,479	3,472	7
<i>Independent schools</i>	23	4,887	4,415	472
Large or important schools.....	11	3,545	3,077	468
Small or less important schools.....	12	1,342	1,338	4
<i>Denominational schools</i>	49	7,932	7,139	748	45
Large or important schools.....	27	5,795	5,005	745	45
Small or less important schools.....	22	2,137	2,134	3
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	31	5,017	4,008	574	45
Large or important schools.....	22	4,702	4,083	574	45
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	268	161	107
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	1	192	171	21
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	6	1,714	1,445	224	45
Board of Freedmen's Missions (United Presbyterian).....	6	1,022	954	68
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).....	2	311	295	16
Board of Missions of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	1	705	677	28
Catholic Board of Missions.....	1	50	50
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	1	93	85	8
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	190	139	51
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	1	106	76	30
Southern Presbyterian Church.....	1	51	30	21
Small or less important schools.....	9	915	915
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).....	1	80	80
Catholic Board of Missions.....	8	835	835
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	18	2,315	2,141	174
Large or important schools.....	5	1,093	922	171
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	265	208	57
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	1	137	113	24
Baptist Local Conventions.....	2	471	436	35
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	220	165	55
Small or less important schools.....	13	1,222	1,219	3
Baptist Local Conventions.....	12	1,142	1,139	3
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	80	80

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Alabama—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	752	143	609	309	443	459	113	23
Large or important schools.	651	124	527	280	371	359	113	23
Small or less important schools.	101	19	82	29	72	100		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	58	2	56	23	35	38	13	1
Land-grant school.	27		27	15	12	15	7	1
State school.	31	2	29	8	23	23	6	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	694	141	553	286	408	421	100	22
Large or important schools.	593	122	471	257	336	321	100	22
Small or less important schools.	101	19	82	29	72	100		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	331	23	308	177	154	138	54	18
Large or important schools.	297	23	274	166	131	105	54	18
Small or less important schools.	34		34	11	23	33		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	363	118	245	109	254	283	46	4
Large or important schools.	296	99	197	91	205	216	46	4
Small or less important schools.	67	19	48	18	49	67		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	274	118	156	77	107	100	44	4
Large or important schools.	253	99	154	76	177	178	44	4
American Baptist Home Mission Society (Episcopal).	21	1	20	8	13	16	2	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	7		7	1	6	6	1	
Board of Freedmen's Missions (United Presbyterian).	85	57	32	17	72	63	10	1
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).	58		58	22	36	37	19	1
Board of Missions of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.	23	13	10	3	20	14	3	
Catholic Board of Missions.	17	7	10	2	15	14	3	
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	6	6		6		4	1	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	6		6	2	4	4		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.	11		11	4	7	8	1	
Southern Presbyterian Church.	10	10		6	4	7	3	
Small or less important schools.	5	5		5		5		
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).	21	19	2	1	20	21		
Catholic Board of Missions.	2		2	1	1	2		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	19	19		19		19		
Large or important schools.	89		89	32	57	84	2	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	43		43	15	28	38	2	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	13		13	4	9	12		
Baptist Local Conventions.	8		8	3	5	7	1	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	8		8	2	6	8		
Small or less important schools.	14		14	6	8	11	1	
Baptist Local Conventions.	40		40	17	29	40		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	43		43	16	27	43		
	3		3	1	2	3		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Alabama—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$805,265	\$57,260	\$120,711	\$237,345	\$180,949
Large or important schools.	576,367	51,077	115,329	233,790	176,171
Small or less important schools.	28,898	6,183	14,382	3,555	4,778
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	50,700	5,660			45,040
Land-grant school.	29,209	1,660			27,549
State school.	21,500	4,000			17,500
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	554,556	51,600	120,711	237,345	135,900
Large or important schools.	525,658	45,417	115,329	233,790	131,122
Small or less important schools.	28,898	6,183	14,382	3,555	4,778
<i>Independent schools.</i>	309,544	26,203		213,887	129,454
Large or important schools.	358,272	22,299		210,926	125,047
Small or less important schools.	11,272	3,904		2,961	4,407
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	185,012	25,397	120,711	23,458	6,446
Large or important schools.	167,386	23,118	115,329	22,864	6,075
Small or less important schools.	17,626	2,279	14,382	594	371
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	150,397	18,680	109,808	21,939	5,910
Large or important schools.	151,333	18,680	104,804	21,939	5,910
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	9,479	1,278	4,000	2,776	1,425
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	4,485	1,234	2,995	35	221
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	63,552	11,947	37,794	12,408	1,493
Board of Freedmen's Missions (United Presbyterian).	20,648	1,154	18,194	1,380	
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).	10,116	325	9,620	95	76
Board of Missions of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.	7,300	1,200	6,000	100	
Catholic Board of Missions.	8,000		8,000		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	2,512		2,441	71	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	5,657	1,242	2,900	148	1,367
Seventh Day Adventist Church.	12,284		8,950	2,006	1,328
Southern Presbyterian Church.	7,300	300	4,000	3,000	
Small or less important schools.	5,064		5,064		
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).					
Catholic Board of Missions.	5,064		5,064		
<i>* Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	28,615	6,717	10,843	1,510	536
Large or important schools.	16,053	4,438	10,525	925	165
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	6,500	1,500	5,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	4,074	949	2,585	500	40
Baptist Local Conventions.	2,475	400	1,550	425	100
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	3,004	1,589	1,390		25
Small or less important schools.	12,562	2,279	9,318	594	371
Baptist Local Conventions.	11,612	1,979	8,668	594	371
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	950	300	650		

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE. BY STATES—Contd.

Alabama—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$5,700,875	\$3,005,440	\$2,240,078	\$463,448
Large or important schools.....	5,615,575	2,911,140	2,240,078	463,448
Small or less important schools.....	94,300	94,300		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	252,500	252,500		
Land-grant school.....	182,500	182,500		
State school.....	70,000	70,000		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	5,457,375	2,752,940	2,240,078	463,448
Large or important schools.....	5,363,075	2,658,640	2,240,078	463,448
Small or less important schools.....	94,300	94,300		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	4,270,566	1,744,068	2,072,050	463,448
Large or important schools.....	4,233,666	1,698,168	2,072,050	463,448
Small or less important schools.....	45,900	45,900		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	1,177,809	1,008,881	168,928	
Large or important schools.....	1,120,400	960,481	168,928	
Small or less important schools.....	48,400	48,400		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	1,003,059	834,131	168,928	
Large or important schools.....	1,003,059	834,131	168,928	
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	83,000	83,000		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	22,000	22,000		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	546,769	377,841	168,928	
Board of Freedmen's Missions (United Presbyterian).....	73,650	73,650		
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).....	55,000	55,000		
Board of Missions of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.....	52,500	52,500		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	25,000	25,000		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	8,875	8,875		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	42,500	42,500		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	42,765	42,765		
Southern Presbyterian Church.....	51,000	51,000		
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>				
Board of Missions for Freedmen (Presbyterian).....				
Catholic Board of Missions.....				
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	174,750	174,750		
Large or important schools.....	120,350	120,350		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	35,600	35,600		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	25,450	25,450		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	7,300	7,300		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	58,000	58,000		
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	48,400	48,400		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	46,000	46,600		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2,400	2,400		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Arkansas.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	27	3,273	2,716	505	52
Large or important schools.	12	2,263	1,722	489	52
Small or less important schools.	15	1,010	994	16	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	170	130	40	
Land-grant schools.	1	170	130	40	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	26	3,103	2,586	405	52
Large or important schools.	11	2,093	1,592	449	52
Small or less important schools.	15	1,010	994	16	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	2	70	70		
Large or important schools.					
Small or less important schools.	2	70	70		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	24	3,033	2,516	405	52
Large or important schools.	11	2,093	1,592	449	52
Small or less important schools.	13	940	924	16	
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	15	2,131	1,766	313	52
Large or important schools.	6	1,479	1,114	313	52
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	1	313	181	119	13
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	2	375	341	34	
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	439	268	132	39
Society of Friends.	1	352	324	28	
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	(1)			
Small or less important schools.	9	652	652		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	6	399	399		
Catholic Board of Missions.	3	253	253		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	9	902	750	152	
Large or important schools.	5	614	478	136	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	219	128	94	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	1	77	68	9	
Baptist local conventions.	3	318	282	36	
Small or less important schools.	4	288	272	16	
Baptist local conventions.	4	288	272	16	

Teachers and workers.

Ownership and control.	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
				Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	153	20	133	56	97	124	17		12
Large or important schools.	109	7	102	47	62	80	17		12
Small or less important schools.	44	13	31	9	35	44			
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	12		12	7	5	9	3		
Land-grant schools.	12		12	7	5	9	3		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	141	20	121	49	92	115	14		12
Large or important schools.	97	7	90	40	57	71	14		12
Small or less important schools.	44	13	31	9	35	44			
<i>Independent schools.</i>	2		2	1	1	2			
Large or important schools.									
Small or less important schools.	2		2	1	1	2			

¹ 119 pupils at Adeline Smith Home included with Philander Smith College.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Arkansas—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Fe- male.	Ac- ademic.	Indus- trial.	Agricul- tural.	Other work.
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	139	20	119	48	91	113	14		12
Large or important schools.	97	7	90	40	57	71	14		12
Small or less important schools.	42	13	29	8	34	42			
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	93	20	73	29	64	69	12		12
Large or important schools.	64	7	57	25	39	40	12		12
American Baptist Home Mission Society	18		18	8	10	11	4		3
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	12		12	4	8	11	1		
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	15		15	8	7	10	1		4
Society of Friends.	16	6	10	5	11	8	3		5
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	3	1	2		3				
Small or less important schools.	29	13	16	4	25	29	3		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	16		16	4	12	16			
Catholic Board of Missions.	13	13			13	13			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	40		40	19	27	44	2		
Large or important schools.	33		33	15	18	31	2		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	14		14	8	6	13	1		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	5		5	3	2	4	1		
Baptist local conventions.	14		14	4	10	14			
Small or less important schools.	13		13	4	9	13			
Baptist local conventions.	13		13	4	9	13			

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$86,340	\$17,183	\$31,662	\$8,823	\$28,672
Large or important schools.	73,117	14,842	21,845	7,898	28,532
Small or less important schools.	13,223	2,341	9,817	925	140
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	24,003	335			23,668
Land-grant schools.	24,003	335			23,668
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	62,337	16,848	31,662	8,823	5,004
Large or important schools.	49,114	14,507	21,845	7,898	4,864
Small or less important schools.	13,223	2,341	9,817	925	140
<i>Independent schools.</i>	1,100	525		575	
Large or important schools.					
Small or less important schools.	1,100	525		575	
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	61,237	16,323	31,662	8,248	5,004
Large or important schools.	49,114	14,507	21,845	7,898	4,864
Small or less important schools.	12,123	1,816	9,817	350	140
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	40,848	9,208	24,008	3,023	4,89
Large or important schools.	33,450	8,692	17,386	2,823	4,540
American Baptist Home Mission Society	15,109	3,380	9,825	400	1,504
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presby-					
terian Church.	2,743	400	2,310		33
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal					
Church.	9,226	4,349	2,994	1,883	
Society of Friends.	4,115	503		540	3,012

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Arkansas—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	\$7,257		\$7,257		
Small or less important schools.....	7,398	\$516	6,882	\$200	\$40
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	3,168	516	2,412	200	40
Catholic Board of Missions.....	4,230		4,230		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	20,380	7,115	7,034	5,225	415
Large or important schools.....	25,604	5,815	4,450	5,075	315
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	8,416	2,516	900	5,000	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	1,447	447	900		
Baptist local conventions.....	6,201	2,852	2,959	75	315
Small or less important schools.....	4,725	1,300	3,175	150	100
Baptist local conventions.....	4,725	1,300	3,175	150	100

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other sources.
All schools in the State.....	\$517,678	\$452,722	\$35,000	\$29,956
Large or important schools.....	492,128	427,172	35,000	29,952
Small or less important schools.....	25,550	25,550		
Schools under public control.....	141,456	111,500		29,956
Land-grant schools.....	141,456	111,500		29,956
Schools under private control.....	376,222	341,222	35,000	
Large or important schools.....	350,672	315,672	35,000	
Small or less important schools.....	25,550	25,550		
Independent schools.....	3,700	3,700		
Large or important schools.....				
Small or less important schools.....	3,700	3,700		
Denominational schools.....	372,522	337,522	35,000	
Large or important schools.....	350,672	315,672	35,000	
Small or less important schools.....	21,850	21,850		
Under white denominational boards.....	200,350	201,350	35,000	
Large or important schools.....	282,850	247,850	35,000	
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	90,000	90,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	26,850	26,850		
Freedman's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	72,300	72,300		
Society of Friends.....	79,400	44,400	35,000	
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	14,300	14,300		
Small or less important schools.....	13,500	13,500		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	13,500	13,500		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
Under Negro denominational boards.....	76,172	76,172		
Large or important schools.....	67,822	67,822		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	29,622	29,622		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	6,200	6,200		
Baptist local conventions.....	32,000	32,000		
Small or less important schools.....	8,350	8,350		
Baptist local conventions.....	8,350	8,350		

1 Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Delaware.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	4	173	102	71	
Large or important schools.....	2	151	80	71	
Small or less important schools.....	2	22	22		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	71		71	
Land-grant school.....	1	71		71	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	3	102	102		
Large or important schools.....	1	80	80		
Smaller or less important schools.....	2	22	22		
<i>Independent boards (small).</i>	2	22	22		
<i>Denominational boards (large).</i>	1	80	80		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	1	80	80		

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	30	15	15	23	7	7	11	3	9
Large or important schools.....	26	15	11	20	6	6	11	3	6
Small or less important schools.....	4		4	3	1	1			3
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	8		8	6	2	4	2	1	1
Land-grant school.....	8		8	6	2	4	2	1	1
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	22	15	7	17	5	3	9	2	8
Large or important schools.....	18	15	3	14	4	2	9	2	5
Smaller or less important schools.....	4		4	3	1	1			3
<i>Independent boards (small).</i>	4		4	3	1	1			3
<i>Denominational boards (large).</i>	18	15	3	14	4	2	9	2	5
Catholic Board of Missions.....	18	15	3	14	4	2	9	2	5

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$41,409	\$859	\$22,500	\$5,050	\$13,000
Large or important schools.....	36,159	659	22,500		13,000
Small or less important schools.....	5,250	200		5,050	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	13,159	159			13,000
Land-grant school.....	13,159	159			13,000
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	28,250	700	22,500	5,050	
Large or important schools.....	23,000	500	22,500		
Smaller or less important schools.....	5,250	200		5,050	
<i>Independent boards (small).</i>	5,250	200		5,050	
<i>Denominational boards (large).</i>	23,000	500	22,500		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	23,000	500	22,500		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Delaware—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$135,750	\$135,750		
Large or important schools.....	117,150	117,150		
Small or less important schools.....	18,600	18,600		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	42,150	42,150		
Land-grant school.....	42,150	42,150		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	93,600	93,600		
Large or important schools.....	75,000	75,000		
Smaller or less important schools.....	18,600	18,600		
<i>Independent boards (small).</i>	18,600	18,600		
<i>Denominational boards (large).</i>	75,000	75,000		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	75,000	75,000		

District of Columbia.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the District.</i>	4	1,982	552	429	1,001
Large or important schools.....	2	1,472	42	429	1,001
Small or less important schools.....	2	510			
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	1,401		400	1,001
Federal schools.....	1	1,401		400	1,001
<i>Schools under private control (all denominations).</i>	3	581	581	29	
Large or important schools.....	1	71	42	29	
Small or less important schools.....	2	510	510		
<i>White boards, small schools.</i>	2	510	510		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	2	510	510		
<i>Colored boards, large school.</i>	1	71	42	29	
Baptist conventions.....	1	71	42	29	

Teachers and workers.

Ownership and control.	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the District.</i>	128	35	93	77	51	69	9	1	49
Large or important schools.....	117	35	82	77	40	58	9	1	49
Small or less important schools.....	11		11		11	11			
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	106	33	73	77	29	50	7		49
Federal schools.....	106	33	73	77	29	50	7		49
<i>Schools under private control (all denominations).</i>	22	2	20		22	19	2	1	
Large or important schools.....	11	2	9		11	8	2	1	
Small or less important schools.....	11		11		11	11			
<i>White boards, small schools.</i>	11		11		11	11			
Catholic Board of Missions.....	11		11		11	11			
<i>Colored boards, large school.</i>	11	2	9		11	8	2	1	
Baptist conventions.....	11	2	9		11	8	2	1	

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

District of Columbia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other.
<i>All schools in the District.</i>	\$184,070	\$54,983	\$8,552	\$3,694	\$116,841
Large or important schools.	181,238	54,983	5,720	3,694	116,841
Small or less important schools.	2,832		2,832		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	172,257	51,983		3,694	116,580
Federal schools.	172,257	51,983		3,694	116,580
<i>Schools under private control (all denominations).</i>	11,813	3,000	8,552		261
Large or important schools.	8,981	3,000	5,720		261
Small or less important schools.	2,832		2,832		
White boards, small schools.	2,832		2,832		
Catholic Board of Missions.	2,832		2,832		
Colored boards, large school.	8,981	3,000	5,720		261
Baptist conventions.	8,981	3,000	5,720		261

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the District.</i>	\$1,799,420	\$1,344,826	\$330,035	\$124,559
Large or important schools.	1,799,420	1,344,826	330,035	124,559
Small or less important schools.				
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1,756,920	1,302,326	330,035	124,559
Federal schools.	1,756,920	1,302,326	330,035	124,559
<i>Schools under private control (all denominations).</i>	42,500	42,500		
Large or important schools.	42,500	42,500		
Small or less important schools.				
White boards, small schools.				
Catholic Board of Missions.				
Colored boards, large school.	42,500	42,500		
Baptist conventions.	42,500	42,500		

Florida.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	27	3,690	3,264	414	12
Large or important schools.	9	2,393	1,967	414	12
Small or less important schools.	18	1,297	1,297		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	345	185	148	12
Land-grant schools.	1	345	185	148	12
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	26	3,345	3,079	266	
Large or important schools.	8	2,048	1,782	266	
Small or less important schools.	18	1,297	1,297		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	3	234	234		
Large or important schools.	2	266	266		
Small or less important schools.	1	28	28		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	23	3,111	2,845	266	
Large or important schools.	6	1,842	1,576	266	
Small or less important schools.	17	1,269	1,269		
Under white denominational boards.	17	2,304	2,206	158	
Large or important schools.	4	1,261	1,103	158	

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Florida—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
American Baptist Home Missionary Society	1	404	318	86
American Missionary Association (Congregational)	1	225	210	15
Freedmans Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	1	408	359	49
Woman's Home Missionary Society of Methodist Episcopal Church	1	224	216	8
<i>Small or less important schools</i>	13	1,103	1,103
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	3	193	193
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	3	247	247
Catholic Board of Missions	7	663	663
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	6	747	639	108
<i>Large or important schools</i>	2	581	473	108
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1	319	240	79
Baptist Local Conventions	1	262	233	29
<i>Small or less important schools</i>	4	166	166
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1	24	24
Baptist Local Conventions	2	120	120
Methodist Episcopal Local Conference	1	22	22

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	182	24	158	58	124	131	30	5	16
Large or important schools.....	137	7	130	49	88	86	30	5	16
Small or less important schools.....	45	17	28	9	36	45			
<i>Schools under public control</i>	34			20	14	12	10	4	8
Land-grant schools.....	34		34	20	14	12	10	4	8
<i>Schools under private control</i>	148	24	124	33	115	119	20	1	8
Large or important schools.....	103	7	96	29	74	74	20	1	8
Small or less important schools.....	45	17	28	9	36	45			
<i>Independent schools</i>	24		24	8	16	15	6	1	2
Large or important schools.....	22		22	7	15	13	6	1	2
Small or less important schools.....	2		2	1	1	2			
<i>Denominational schools</i>	124	24	100	30	94	104	14		6
Large or important schools.....	81	7	74	22	59	61	14		6
Small or less important schools.....	43	17	26	8	35	43			
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	91	24	67	16	75	71	14		6
Large or important schools.....	57	7	50	11	46	37	14		6
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	18		18	4	14	12	4		2
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	12		12	3	9	8	3		2
Freedmans Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	14	3	11	4	10	13	1		
Woman's Home Missionary Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	13	4	9		13	4	6		3
<i>Small or less important schools</i>	34	17	17	5	29	34			
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	8		8	2	6	8			
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	9		9	3	6	9			

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Florida—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
Catholic Board of Missions.....	17	17			17	17		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	33		33	14	17	33		
Large or important schools.....	24		24	11	13	24		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	16		16	8	8	16		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	8		8	3	5	8		
Small or less important schools.....	9		9	3	6	9		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1		1		1	1		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	4		4	2	2	4		
Methodist Episcopal Local Conference.....	4		4	1	3	4		

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
All schools in the State.....	\$111,169	\$10,716	\$40,769	\$17,377	\$42,307
Large or important schools.....	101,001	9,644	33,878	17,202	41,177
Small or less important schools.....	9,268	1,072	6,891	175	1,130
Schools under public control.....	34,168				34,168
Land-grant schools.....	34,168				34,168
Schools under private control.....	77,001	10,716	40,769	17,377	8,139
Large or important schools.....	67,733	9,644	33,878	17,202	7,009
Small or less important schools.....	9,268	1,072	6,891	175	1,130
Independent schools.....	19,158	1,182		16,701	1,275
Large or important schools.....	18,430	954		16,701	775
Small or less important schools.....	728	228			500
Denominational schools.....	57,643	9,534	40,769	676	6,864
Large or important schools.....	49,303	8,606	33,878	501	6,234
Small or less important schools.....	8,540	844	6,891	175	630
Under white denominational boards.....	33,396	7,101	23,310	445	2,480
Large or important schools.....	27,081	6,567	18,279	445	1,850
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	8,070	3,443	4,105		522
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	3,343	178	2,458	282	425
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	9,387	1,998	6,346	163	880
Woman's Home Missionary Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	6,281	948	5,310		23
Small or less important schools.....	6,315	594	5,091		630
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	1,835	310	1,525		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	1,150	284	236		630
Catholic Board of Missions.....	3,330		3,330		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	24,447	2,373	17,459	231	4,384
Large or important schools.....	22,222	2,123	15,659	56	4,384
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	18,701	1,200	13,700	56	3,745
Baptist Local Conventions.....	3,541	923	1,959		639
Small or less important schools.....	2,225	250	1,800	175	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	200		200		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	1,575	200	1,200	175	
Methodist Episcopal Local Conference.....	450	50	400		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Florida—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$600,832	\$508,674	\$6,000	\$5,158
Large or important schools.	580,332	478,174	6,000	5,158
Small or less important schools.	20,500	20,500		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	131,421	131,421		
Land-grant schools.	131,421	131,421		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	478,411	407,253	6,000	5,158
Large or important schools.	457,911	446,753	6,000	5,158
Small or less important schools.	20,500	20,500		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	85,875	70,875	6,000	
Large or important schools.	85,875	70,875	6,000	
Small or less important schools.				
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	302,530	387,378		5,158
Large or important schools.	372,036	366,898		5,158
Small or less important schools.	20,500	20,500		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	311,530	300,378		5,158
Large or important schools.	304,036	298,878		5,158
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.	80,158	75,000		5,158
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	49,300	49,300		
Freedmans Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	101,578	101,578		
Woman's Home Missionary Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	73,000	73,000		
Small or less important schools.	7,500	7,500		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	3,500	3,500		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	4,000	4,000		
Catholic Board of Missions.	(1)			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	81,000	81,000		
Large or important schools.	68,000	68,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	43,000	43,000		
Baptist Local Conventions.	25,000	25,000		
Small or less important schools.	13,000	13,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	1,500	1,500		
Baptist Local Conventions.	10,000	10,000		
Methodist Episcopal Local Conference.	1,500	1,500		

1 Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Georgia.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	79	11,070	9,592	2,220	140
Large or important schools.	39	8,298	5,923	2,226	149
Small or less important schools.	40	3,672	3,669	3	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	300	280	110	
Land-grant school.	1	390	280	110	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	78	11,580	9,312	2,110	149
Large or important schools.	38	7,908	5,643	2,116	149
Small or less important schools.	40	3,672	3,669	3	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	21	2,654	2,227	383	44
Large or important schools.	6	1,358	934	380	44
Small or less important schools.	15	1,296	1,293	3	
<i>Denominational boards.</i>	57	8,926	7,085	1,736	105
Large or important schools.	32	6,550	4,700	1,736	105
Small or less important schools.	25	2,376	2,376		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	39	7,037	5,560	1,382	95
Large or important schools.	25	5,433	3,956	1,382	95
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	5	1,287	760	478	49
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	2	474	432	42	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	6	1,459	1,167	292	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	7	1,564	1,322	242	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	2	382	128	222	32
Methodist Episcopal Church South.	1	202	82	106	14
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	2	165	65		
Small or less important schools.	14	1,604	1,604		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	3	211	211		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	4	223	223		
Catholic Board of Missions.	7	1,170	1,170		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	18	1,889	1,535	354	10
Large or important schools.	7	1,117	753	354	10
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	3	710	402	298	10
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	128	120	8	
Baptist Conventions.	3	279	231	48	
Small or less important schools.	11	772	772		
Baptist Local Conventions.	9	672	672		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	20	20		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.	1	80	80		

1 Does not include Thayer Home students who are counted with Clark University.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Georgia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	570	150	420	173	397	446	50	7	67
Large or important schools.....	451	133	318	147	304	333	46	6	66
Small or less important schools.....	119	17	102	26	93	113	4	1	1
<i>Schools under public control</i>	21	21	21	17	4	10	7	1	1
Land-grant school.....	21	21	21	17	4	10	7	1	1
<i>Schools under private control</i>	549	150	399	156	393	436	43	6	64
Large or important schools.....	430	133	297	130	300	323	39	5	63
Small or less important schools.....	119	17	102	26	93	113	4	1	1
<i>Independent schools</i>	97	29	68	27	70	81	6	1	9
Large or important schools.....	56	29	27	16	40	43	5	8
Small or less important schools.....	41	41	11	30	38	1	1	1
<i>Denominational boards</i>	452	121	331	129	323	355	37	5	55
Large or important schools.....	374	104	270	114	260	280	34	5	55
Small or less important schools.....	78	17	61	15	63	75	3
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	355	121	234	91	264	277	33	5	40
Large or important schools.....	315	104	211	85	230	237	33	5	40
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	106	50	56	26	80	67	6	2	31
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	29	29	7	22	21	6	1	1
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	68	32	36	15	53	55	8	5
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	59	59	15	44	56	2	1
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	23	9	14	14	9	22	1
Methodist Episcopal Church South.....	19	6	13	8	11	14	3	1	1
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	11	7	4	11	2	8	1
Small or less important schools.....	40	17	23	6	34	40
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	9	9	2	7	9
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	8	8	4	4	8
Catholic Board of Missions.....	23	17	6	23	23
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	97	97	38	59	78	4	15
Large or important schools.....	59	59	29	30	43	1	15
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	41	41	21	20	26	15
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	5	5	2	3	5
Baptist Conventions.....	13	13	6	7	12	1
Small or less important schools.....	38	38	9	29	35	3
Baptist Local Conventions.....	34	34	9	25	31	3
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	2	2	2
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	2	2	2	2

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Georgia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$365, 105	\$54, 308	\$128, 360	\$83, 188	\$99, 159
Large or important schools.	330, 401	46, 181	116, 791	72, 120	95, 309
Small or less important schools.	34, 704	8, 217	11, 569	11, 068	3, 850
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	25, 369				25, 369
Land-grant school.	25, 369				25, 369
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	339, 736	54, 308	128, 360	83, 188	73, 790
Large or important schools.	305, 032	46, 181	116, 791	72, 120	69, 940
Small or less important schools.	34, 704	8, 217	11, 569	11, 068	3, 850
<i>Independent schools.</i>	72, 888	12, 433	200	47, 181	13, 074
Large or important schools.	55, 733	8, 171	200	36, 488	10, 874
Small or less important schools.	17, 155	4, 262		10, 693	2, 200
<i>Denominational boards.</i>	260, 845	41, 065	128, 160	30, 007	60, 716
Large or important schools.	249, 299	38, 010	116, 591	35, 632	59, 066
Small or less important schools.	17, 549	3, 055	11, 569	375	1, 650
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	232, 376	33, 639	108, 365	33, 400	50, 005
Large or important schools.	224, 294	32, 794	101, 378	33, 157	50, 005
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	81, 573	12, 796	31, 799	15, 073	21, 905
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	16, 072	1, 572	3, 300	9, 757	1, 443
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	33, 583	10, 712	19, 273	2, 934	664
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	19, 082	3, 070	11, 986	2, 093	1, 933
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	43, 714	3, 994	9, 300	800	29, 620
Methodist Episcopal Church South.	23, 050	650	18, 500	2, 500	1, 400
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	7, 220		7, 220		
Small or less important schools.	8, 082	845	6, 987	250	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	2, 132	635	1, 247	250	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	1, 110	210	900		
Catholic Board of Missions.	4, 840		4, 840		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	34, 472	8, 326	19, 795	2, 600	3, 751
Large or important schools.	25, 005	5, 216	15, 213	2, 475	2, 101
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	17, 448	3, 454	11, 613	415	1, 966
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	2, 000	500	1, 500		
Baptist Conventions.	5, 557	1, 262	2, 100	2, 060	135
Small or less important schools.	9, 407	3, 110	4, 582	125	1, 050
Baptist Local Conventions.	8, 667	2, 760	4, 132	125	1, 650
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	300	100	200		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.	500	250	250		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Georgia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$2,715,990	\$1,851,302	\$854,568	\$10,120
Large or important schools.	2,638,690	1,774,002	854,568	10,120
Small or less important schools.	77,300	77,300		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	68,449	68,449		
Land-grant school.	68,449	68,449		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	2,647,541	1,782,853	854,568	10,120
Large or important schools.	2,570,241	1,705,553	854,568	10,120
Small or less important schools.	77,300	77,300		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	493,673	390,491	103,182	
Large or important schools.	454,773	351,591	103,182	
Small or less important schools.	38,900	38,900		
<i>Denominational boards.</i>	2,153,868	1,392,302	751,386	10,120
Large or important schools.	2,115,468	1,353,962	751,386	10,120
Small or less important schools.	38,400	38,400		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	1,912,668	1,176,162	726,386	10,120
Large or important schools.	1,902,668	1,166,162	726,386	10,120
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	621,624	556,818	54,686	10,120
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	56,500	56,500		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	133,900	133,900		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	91,444	91,444		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	859,200	212,500	646,700	
Methodist Episcopal Church South.	125,000	100,000	25,000	
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	15,000	15,000		
Small or less important schools.	10,000	10,000		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	10,000	10,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.				
Catholic Board of Missions.	(1)			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	241,200	216,200	25,000	
Large or important schools.	212,800	187,800	25,000	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	180,300	155,300	25,000	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	6,000	6,000		
Baptist Conventions.	26,500	26,500		
Small or less important schools.	28,400	28,400		
Baptist Local Conventions.	25,900	25,900		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	2,500	2,500		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.				

(1) Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Kentucky.

Ownership and control	Number of schools	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	18	1,410	1,115	295	
Large or important schools.	7	780	486	294	
Small or less important schools.	11	630	629	1	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	234	108	126	
Land-grant schools.	1	234	108	126	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	17	1,176	1,007	169	
Large or important schools.	6	546	378	168	
Small or less important schools.	11	630	629	1	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	3	177	122	55	
Large or important schools.	1	104	49	55	
Small or less important schools.	2	73	73		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	14	999	885	114	
Large or important schools.	5	442	329	113	
Small or less important schools.	9	557	556	1	
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	10	904	811	93	
Large or important schools.	4	398	305	93	
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	1	130	86	44	
American Missionary Association.	1	170	137	33	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	2	98	82	16	
Small or less important schools.	6	506	506		
Catholic Board of Missions.	6	506	506		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	4	95	74	21	
Large or important schools.	1	44	24	20	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.	1	44	24	20	
Small or less important schools.	3	51	50	1	
African Methodist Episcopal.	1	33	32	1	
Local Baptist conventions.	2	18	18		

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	93	26	67	41	52	66	9	2	16
Large or important schools.	74	16	58	37	37	49	9	2	14
Small or less important schools.	19	10	9	4	15	17			2
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	19	19	12	7	9	4	1		5
Land-grant schools.	19	19	12	7	9	4	1		5
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	74	26	48	29	45	57	5	1	11
Large or important schools.	55	16	39	25	30	40	5	1	9
Small or less important schools.	19	10	9	4	15	17			2
<i>Independent schools.</i>	19	8	11	10	9	6	3	1	9
Large or important schools.	15	8	7	8	7	4	3	1	7
Small or less important schools.	4		4	2	2	2			2
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	55	18	37	19	36	51	2		2
Large or important schools.	40	8	32	17	23	36	2		2
Small or less important schools.	15	10	5	2	13	15			
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	44	18	26	15	20	40	2		2
Large or important schools.	34	8	26	15	19	30	2		2
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	15	1	14	9	6	11	2		2
American Missionary Association.	10	7	3	2	8	10			

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Kentucky—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	9		9	4	5	9		
Small or less important schools	10	10			10	10		
Catholic Board of Missions	10	10			10	10		
Under Negro denominational boards	11		11	4	7	11		
Large or important schools	6		6	2	4	6		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion	6		6	2	4	6		
Small or less important schools	5		5	2	3	5		
African Methodist Episcopal	3		3	1	2	3		
Local Baptist conventions	2		2	1	1	2		

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
All schools in the State	\$70,876	\$7,686	\$20,591	\$6,948	\$35,651
Large or important schools	64,686	6,786	16,731	5,998	35,171
Small or less important schools	6,190	900	3,860	950	480
Schools under public control	22,327	439			21,888
Land-grant schools	22,327	439			21,888
Schools under private control	48,549	7,247	20,591	6,948	13,763
Large or important schools	42,359	6,347	16,731	5,998	13,283
Small or less important schools	6,190	900	3,860	950	480
Independent schools	20,351	1,789		5,098	13,464
Large or important schools	19,671	1,789		4,898	12,984
Small or less important schools	680			200	480
Denominational schools	28,198	5,458	20,591	1,850	299
Large or important schools	22,688	4,558	16,731	1,100	299
Small or less important schools	5,510	900	3,860	750	
Under white denominational boards	22,377	4,281	17,740	57	299
Large or important schools	19,867	4,281	15,230	57	299
American Baptist Home Mission Society	11,368	1,563	9,574		171
American Missionary Association	5,559	2,082	3,292	57	128
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	3,000	636	2,364		
Small or less important schools	2,510		2,510		
Catholic Board of Missions	2,510		2,510		
Under Negro denominational boards	5,821	1,177	2,851	1,793	
Large or important schools	2,821	277	1,501	1,043	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion	2,821	277	1,501	1,043	
Small or less important schools	3,000	900	1,350	750	
African Methodist Episcopal	1,500	150	1,350		
Local Baptist conventions	1,500	750		750	

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Kentucky—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$824,248	\$555,686	\$250,298	\$18,264
Large or important schools.....	798,848	530,286	250,298	18,264
Small or less important schools.....	25,400	25,400		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	150,700	150,700		
Land-grant schools.....	150,700	150,700		
<i>Schools under private control</i>	667,548	398,986	250,298	18,264
Large or important schools.....	642,148	373,586	250,298	18,264
Small or less important schools.....	25,400	25,400		
<i>Independent schools</i>	520,698	261,136	250,298	18,264
Large or important schools.....	519,498	250,936	250,298	18,264
Small or less important schools.....	10,200	10,200		
<i>Denominational schools</i>	137,850	137,850		
Large or important schools.....	122,650	122,650		
Small or less important schools.....	15,200	15,200		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	110,050	110,050		
Large or important schools.....	110,050	110,050		
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	60,000	60,000		
American Missionary Association.....	39,000	39,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	11,050	11,050		
Small or less important schools.....	(1)			
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	27,800	27,800		
Large or important schools.....	12,600	12,600		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	12,600	12,600		
Small or less important schools.....	15,200	15,200		
African Methodist Episcopal.....	7,000	7,000		
Local Baptist conventions.....	8,200	8,200		

Louisiana.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	65	9,370	8,650	687	24
Large or important schools.....	14	3,032	2,372	636	24
Small or less important schools.....	51	6,338	6,287	51	
<i>Schools under public control</i>	1	160	102	58	
Land-grant school.....	1	160	102	58	
<i>Schools under private control</i>	64	9,210	8,507	620	24
Large or important schools.....	13	2,872	2,270	578	24
Small or less important schools.....	51	6,338	6,287	51	
<i>Independent schools</i>	7	702	671	31	
Large or important schools.....	2	220	189	31	
Small or less important schools.....	5	482	482		
<i>Denominational schools</i>	57	8,508	7,886	598	24
Large or important schools.....	11	2,652	2,081	547	24
Small or less important schools.....	46	5,856	5,805	51	
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	39	5,974	5,476	474	24
Large or important schools.....	6	1,795	1,297	474	24
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	12	972	435	133	4
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	1	578	364	203	11

(1) Figures not available.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Louisiana—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church	2	645	498	138	9
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	1	(1)			
Small or less important schools	33	4,179	4,179		
Catholic Board of Missions	25	3,142	3,142		
Lutheran Board of Missions	8	1,037	1,037		
Under Negro denominational boards	18	2,534	2,410	124	
Large or important schools	5	857	784	73	
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1	142	116	26	
Baptist Local Conventions	3	551	522	29	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church	1	164	146	18	
Small or less important schools	13	1,677	1,626	51	
Baptist Local Conventions	13	1,677	1,626	51	

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
All schools in the State	325	132	193	102	223	279	25	19
Large or important schools	166	40	120	65	95	114	25	19
Small or less important schools	165	92	73	37	128	165		
Schools under public control	23	23	73	14	9	12	5	4
Land-grant schools	23	23	73	14	9	12	5	4
Schools under private control	302	132	170	88	214	267	20	15
Large or important schools	137	40	97	51	86	102	20	15
Small or less important schools	165	92	73	37	128	165		
Independent schools	34	34	12	22	28	5		1
Large or important schools	19	19	8	11	13	5		1
Small or less important schools	15	15	4	11	15			
Denominational schools	268	132	136	70	192	239	15	14
Large or important schools	118	40	78	43	75	89	15	14
Small or less important schools	150	92	58	33	117	150		
Under white denominational boards	193	132	61	50	143	166	13	14
Large or important schools	90	40	50	34	56	63	13	14
American Baptist Home Mission Society	26	10	16	13	13	24	2	
American Missionary Association (Congregational)	30	17	13	13	17	17	4	9
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church	28	9	19	8	20	22	3	3
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	6	4	2		6		4	2
Small or less important schools	103	92	11	16	87	103		
Catholic Board of Missions	83	83			83	83		
Lutheran Board of Missions	20	9	11	16	4	20		
Under Negro denominational boards	75		75	26	49	73	2	
Large or important schools	28		28	9	19	26	2	
African Methodist Episcopal Church	6		6	3	3	6		
Baptist Local Conventions	15		15	3	12	13	2	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church	7		7	3	4	7		
Small or less important schools	47		47	17	30	47		
Baptist Local Conventions	47		47	17	30	47		

¹ The 175 pupils of Peck Home are also students of New Orleans University.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Louisiana—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$153,415	\$28,721	\$67,408	\$7,833	\$49,453
Large or important schools.	102,930	19,986	31,068	5,273	40,603
Small or less important schools.	50,485	8,735	36,340	2,560	2,850
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	31,384	282			31,102
Land-grant school.	31,384	282			31,102
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	122,031	28,439	67,408	7,833	18,351
Large or important schools.	71,546	19,704	31,068	5,273	15,501
Small or less important schools.	50,485	8,735	36,340	2,560	2,850
<i>Independent schools.</i>	10,831	1,550		4,551	4,730
Large or important schools.	5,446	400		2,241	2,805
Small or less important schools.	5,385	1,150		2,310	1,925
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	111,200	26,880	67,408	3,282	13,621
Large or important schools.	66,100	19,304	31,068	3,032	12,696
Small or less important schools.	45,100	7,575	36,340	250	925
Under white denominational boards.	85,740	10,724	52,772	2,032	11,221
Large or important schools.	56,045	17,124	25,668	2,032	11,221
American Baptist Home Mission Society	16,356	3,325	4,685		8,346
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	20,385	7,799	9,567	144	2,875
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	16,133	6,000	8,500	1,633	
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	3,171		2,916	255	
Small or less important schools.	29,704	2,600	27,104		
Catholic Board of Missions.	18,304		18,304		
Lutheran Board of Missions.	11,400	2,600	8,800		
Under Negro denominational boards.	25,451	7,165	14,636	1,250	2,400
Large or important schools.	10,055	2,180	5,400	1,000	1,475
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	1,500	300	1,000		200
Baptist Local Conventions.	6,155	1,480	2,400	1,000	1,275
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	2,400	400	2,000		
Small or less important schools.	15,306	4,085	9,236	250	925
Baptist Local Conventions.	15,396	4,985	9,236	250	925

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$1,212,237	\$1,087,237	\$125,000	
Large or important schools.	1,115,800	990,800	125,000	
Small or less important schools.	96,437	96,437		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	95,250	95,250		
Land-grant school.	95,250	95,250		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	1,116,987	991,987	125,000	
Large or important schools.	1,020,550	895,550	125,000	
Small or less important schools.	96,437	96,437		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	118,037	118,037		
Large or important schools.	101,100	101,100		
Small or less important schools.	16,937	16,937		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	908,950	873,950	125,000	
Large or important schools.	919,450	794,450	125,000	
Small or less important schools.	79,500	79,500		
Under white denominational boards.	901,500	776,500	125,000	
Large or important schools.	876,000	751,000	125,000	

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Louisiana—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	\$462,000	\$337,000	\$125,000	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	150,000	150,000		
Freedmen's Aid Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	219,000	219,000		
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	45,000	45,000		
Small or less important schools.....	25,500	25,500		
Catholic Board of Missions.....				
Lutheran Board of Missions.....	25,500	25,500		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	97,450	97,450		
Large or important schools.....	43,450	43,450		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	10,150	10,150		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	21,300	21,300		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12,000	12,000		
Small or less important schools.....	54,000	54,000		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	54,000	54,000		

Maryland.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
All schools in the State.....	12	1,206	992	188	26
Large or important schools.....	3	254	50	178	26
Small or less important schools.....	9	952	942	10	
Schools under public control.....	2	173	50	123	
Land-grant schools.....	1	123	38	85	
State school.....	1	50	12	38	
Schools under private control.....	10	1,033	942	65	26
Large or important schools.....	1	81		55	26
Small or less important schools.....	9	952	942	10	
Independent schools.....	3	38	38		
Large or important schools.....					
Small or less important schools.....	3	38	38		
Denominational schools.....	7	995	904	65	26
Large or important schools.....	1	81		55	26
Small or less important schools.....	6	914	904	10	
Under white denominational boards.....	5	909	888	55	26
Large or important schools.....	1	81		55	26
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	81		55	26
Small or less important schools.....	4	888	888		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	4	888	888		
Under Negro denominational boards (all small).....	2	26	16	10	
Baptist local conventions.....	2	26	16	10	

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Maryland—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	59	27	32	24	35	47	6	1
Large or important schools.	31	7	24	18	13	19	6	1
Small or less important schools.	28	20	8	6	22	28		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	20		20	13	7	11	6	1
Land-grant schools.	12		12	8	4	6	5	1
State school.	8		8	5	3	5	1	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	39	27	12	11	28	36		
Large or important schools.	11	7	4	5	6	8		
Small or less important schools.	28	20	8	6	22	28		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	3		3	1	2	3		
Large or important schools.								
Small or less important schools.	3		3	1	2	3		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	30	27	3	10	20	33		
Large or important schools.	11	7	4	5	6	8		
Small or less important schools.	19	20	5	5	20	25		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	31	27	4	5	26	28		
Large or important schools.	11	7	4	5	6	8		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	11	7	4	5	6	8		
Small or less important schools.	20	20			20	20		
Catholic Board of Missions.	20	20			20	20		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards (all small).</i>	5		5	5		5		
Baptist local conventions.	5		5	5		5		

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total. ¹	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$47,035	\$7,019	\$14,006	\$1,419	\$23,691
Large or important schools.	40,000	6,734	9,256	419	23,591
Small or less important schools.	7,035	285	5,650	1,000	100
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	23,581	3,440	1,000		19,132
Land-grant schools.	15,528	2,584	1,000		11,944
State school.	8,053	865			7,188
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	23,454	3,579	13,006	1,419	4,559
Large or important schools.	16,419	3,285	8,256	419	4,459
Small or less important schools.	7,035	285	5,650	1,000	100
<i>Independent schools.</i>	1,385	285		1,000	100
Large or important schools.					
Small or less important schools.	1,385	285		1,000	100
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	22,009	3,285	13,006	419	4,459
Large or important schools.	16,419	3,285	8,256	419	4,459
Small or less important schools.	5,650		5,650		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	22,009	3,285	13,006	419	4,459
Large or important schools.	16,419	3,285	8,256	419	4,459
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	16,419	3,285	8,256	419	4,459
Small or less important schools.	5,650		5,650		
Catholic Board of Missions.	5,650		5,650		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards (all small).</i>					
Baptist local conventions.	(¹)				

¹ Figures not available.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Maryland—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$178,074	\$121,900	\$56,174	
Large or important schools.	175,324	119,150	56,174	
Small or less important schools.	2,750	2,750		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	78,450	78,450		
Land-grant schools.	44,950	44,950		
State school.	33,500	33,500		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	99,624	43,450	56,174	
Large or important schools.	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Small or less important schools.	2,750	2,750		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	2,750	2,750		
Large or important schools.	2,750	2,750		
Small or less important schools.	2,750	2,750		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Large or important schools.	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Small or less important schools.				
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Large or important schools.	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	96,874	40,700	56,174	
Small or less important schools.				
Catholic Board of Missions.	(1)			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards (all small).</i>				
Baptist local conventions.	(2)			

Mississippi.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	47	7,528	6,615	885	28
Large or important schools.	24	5,135	4,307	800	28
Small or less important schools.	23	2,393	2,308	85	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	484	337	147	
Land-grant schools.	1	484	337	147	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	46	7,044	6,278	738	28
Large or important schools.	23	4,651	3,970	653	28
Small or less important schools.	23	2,393	2,308	85	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	4	858	823	35	
Large or important schools.	4	858	823	35	
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	42	6,186	5,455	703	28
Large or important schools.	19	3,793	3,144	618	28
Small or less important schools.	23	2,393	2,308	85	
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	26	3,095	3,232	435	28
Large or important schools.	14	2,048	2,485	435	28
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	1	310	222	88	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	4	843	687	136	20
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.	1	199	150	49	
Catholic Board of Missions.	3	775	768	7	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	1	121	121		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	1	106	173	23	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	2	504	364	132	8
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	(3)			
Small or less important schools.	13	747	747		

† Figures not available.

‡ Schools taught in rented building.

§ Pupils included with attendance of Rust College.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Mississippi—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
Catholic Board of Missions.....	10	665	665		
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	1	52	52		
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	1	30	30		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	16	2,491	2,223	268	
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	5	845	662	183	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	250	170	80	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	242	200	42	
Local Baptist conventions.....	3	353	292	61	
<i>Small or less important schools.....</i>	11	1,646	1,561	85	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	32	32		
Local Baptist conventions.....	9	1,484	1,407	77	
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	1	130	122	8	

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other.
<i>All schools in the State.....</i>	345	117	228	211	234	247	40	12
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	270	96	174	95	175	173	48	12
<i>Small or less important schools.....</i>	75	21	54	16	59	74	1	
<i>Schools under public control.....</i>	24	24	20	4	11	6	5	2
Land-grant schools.....	24	24	20	4	11	6	5	2
<i>Schools under private control.....</i>	321	117	204	91	230	236	43	7
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	246	96	150	75	171	162	42	7
<i>Small or less important schools.....</i>	75	21	54	16	59	74	1	
<i>Independent schools.....</i>	58	58	24	34	29	17	3	9
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	58	58	24	34	29	17	3	9
<i>Denominational schools.....</i>	263	117	146	67	196	207	26	4
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	188	96	92	51	137	133	25	4
<i>Small or less important schools.....</i>	75	21	54	16	59	74	1	
<i>Under white denominational boards.....</i>	172	117	55	36	136	124	21	4
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	148	96	52	36	112	100	21	4
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	16		16	6	10	10	3	2
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	47	38	9	10	37	29	5	1
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	14	14		1	13	7	2	
Catholic Board of Missions.....	21	21		2	19	20	1	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	5		5	2	3	4	1	
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	18	15	3	7	11	10	6	1
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	23	5	18	8	15	20		
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	4	3	1		4		3	
<i>Small or less important schools.....</i>	24	21	3		24	24		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	21	21			21	21		
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	2		2		2			
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	1		1		1	1		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	91		91	31	60	83	5	
<i>Large or important schools.....</i>	40		40	15	25	33	4	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	14		14	7	7	11	1	

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Mississippi—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12	12	4	8	10	1		
Local Baptist conventions.....	14	14	4	10	12	2		
Small or less important schools.....	51	51	16	35	50	1		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	1	1		1			
Local Baptist conventions.....	44	44	13	31	44			
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	6	6	2	4	5	1		

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
All schools in the State.....	\$225,199	\$25,451	\$92,536	\$36,555	\$70,657
Large or important schools.....	204,795	19,995	81,133	35,910	67,757
Small or less important schools.....	20,404	5,456	11,403	645	2,900
Schools under public control.....	47,774				47,774
Land-grant schools.....	47,774				47,774
Schools under private control.....	177,425	25,451	92,536	36,555	22,883
Large or important schools.....	157,021	19,995	81,133	35,910	19,983
Small or less important schools.....	20,404	5,456	11,403	645	2,900
Independent schools.....	33,618	1,370		28,983	3,265
Large or important schools.....	33,618	1,370		28,983	3,265
Denominational schools.....	143,807	24,081	92,536	7,572	19,618
Large or important schools.....	123,403	18,625	81,133	6,927	16,718
Small or less important schools.....	20,404	5,456	11,403	645	2,900
Under white denominational boards.....	110,434	14,823	72,630	6,927	16,054
Large or important schools.....	105,164	14,503	67,980	6,927	15,754
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	11,591	1,165	10,074	352	
American Missionary Association (Congrega- tional).....	32,489	5,102	16,873	5,744	4,790
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	6,517		4,280		2,237
Catholic Board of Missions.....	4,302	1,252	2,550	500	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Epis- copal).....	2,594	203	2,300		11
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	21,006	602	17,261		3,143
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	21,850	6,179	9,747	351	5,573
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Metho- dist Episcopal Church.....	4,895		4,895		
Small or less important schools.....	5,270	320	4,650		300
Catholic Board of Missions.....	4,650		4,650		
Christian conventions (miscellaneous).....	500	200			300
Seventh Day Adventist Church.....	120	120			
Under Negro denominational boards.....	33,373	9,258	19,006	645	3,564
Large or important schools.....	18,239	4,122	13,153		964
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	8,000	1,000	7,000		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	3,672	2,016	1,278		378
Local Baptist conventions.....	6,567	1,106	4,875		586
Small or less important schools.....	15,134	5,136	6,753	645	2,600
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	450	100	350		
Local Baptist conventions.....	13,184	4,836	6,403	145	2,800
Church of Christ Sanctified.....	1,500	200		500	800

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Mississippi—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property. ¹			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$1,541,402	\$1,504,252	\$37,150	
Large or important schools.	1,497,162	1,460,012	37,150	
Small or less important schools.	44,240	44,240		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	258,500	258,500		
Land-grant schools.	258,500	258,500		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	1,282,902	1,245,752	37,150	
Large or important schools.	1,238,662	1,201,512	37,150	
Small or less important schools.	44,240	44,240		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	314,220	308,070	6,150	
Large or important schools.	314,220	308,070	6,150	
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	968,682	937,682	31,000	
Large or important schools.	924,442	893,442	31,000	
Small or less important schools.	44,240	44,240		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	743,092	723,092	20,000	
Large or important schools.	743,092	723,092	20,000	
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	100,000	100,000		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	172,400	172,400		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.	71,000	51,000	20,000	
Catholic Board of Missions.	56,000	56,000		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	5,000	5,000		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	100,492	100,492		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	146,200	146,200		
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	32,000	32,000		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	225,590	214,590	11,000	
Large or important schools. ¹	181,350	170,350	11,000	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	45,500	34,500	11,000	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	87,000	87,000		
Local Baptist conventions.	48,850	48,850		
Small or less important schools.	44,240	44,240		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	1,500	1,500		
Local Baptist conventions.	32,740	32,740		
Church of Christ Sanctified.	10,000	10,000		

¹ No property value reported for small schools under white denominational control.

Missouri.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	4	432	174	248	
Large or important school.	4	432	174	248	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	264	122	142	
Land-grant schools.	1	264	122	142	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	3	158	52	106	
Large or important schools.	3	158	52	106	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	1	19	19		
Large or important school.	1	19	19		
<i>Denominational schools (white boards):</i>					
Large or important schools.	2	130	33	106	
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	1	66	23	43	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	73	10	63	

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Missouri—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
All schools in the State.....	62	2	60	26	36	31	13	3	15
Large or important schools.....	62	2	60	26	36	31	13	3	15
Schools under public control.....	33		33	16	17	13	10	3	7
Land-grant schools.....	33		33	16	17	13	10	3	7
Schools under private control.....	29	2	27	10	19	18	3		8
Large or important schools.....	29	2	27	10	19	18	3		8
Independent schools.....	6		6	2	4	6			
Large or important schools.....	6		6	2	4	6			
Denominational schools (white boards):									
Large or important schools.....	23	2	21	8	15	12	3		8
American Baptist Home Mission Society	11		11	4	7	6			5
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12	2	10	4	8	6	3		3

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$58,005	\$4,881	\$8,508	\$3,300	\$41,316
<i>Large or important schools</i>	58,005	4,881	8,508	3,300	41,316
<i>Schools under public control</i>	42,162	1,760			40,402
<i>Land-grant schools</i>	42,162	1,760			40,402
<i>Schools under private control</i>	15,843	3,121	8,508	3,300	914
<i>Large or important schools</i>	15,843	3,121	8,508	3,300	914
<i>Independent schools</i>	2,837	294		2,543	
<i>Large or important schools</i>	2,837	294		2,543	
<i>Denominational schools (white boards):</i>					
<i>Large or important schools</i>	13,006	2,837	8,508	757	914
American Baptist Home Mission Society	4,486	1,192	3,016	118	160
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	8,520	1,635	5,492	630	754

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$343,875	\$343,875		
<i>Large or important schools</i>	343,875	343,875		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	226,375	226,375		
<i>Land-grant schools</i>	226,375	226,375		
<i>Schools under private control</i>	117,500	117,500		
<i>Large or important schools</i>	117,500	117,500		
<i>Independent schools</i>	38,500	38,500		
<i>Large or important schools</i>	38,500	38,500		
<i>Denominational schools (white boards):</i>				
<i>Large or important schools</i>	79,000	79,000		
American Baptist Home Mission Society	20,000	20,000		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	59,000	59,000		

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

North Carolina.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	76	8,619	7,149	1,385	85
Large or important schools.....	34	6,224	4,777	1,362	85
Small or less important schools.....	42	2,395	2,372	23	
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	4	791	493	298	
Land-grant schools.....	1	150	60	90	
State schools.....	3	641	433	208	
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	72	7,828	6,656	1,087	85
Large or important schools.....	30	5,433	4,284	1,064	85
Small or less important schools.....	42	2,395	2,372	23	
<i>Independent schools.</i>	9	597	537	60	
Large or important schools.....	3	343	284	59	
Small or less important schools.....	6	254	253	1	
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	63	7,231	6,119	1,027	85
Large or important schools.....	27	5,090	4,000	1,005	85
Small or less important schools.....	36	2,141	2,119	22	
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	41	5,722	4,853	801	68
Large or important schools.....	21	4,345	3,490	787	68
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	3	419	228	145	46
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	2	414	340	71	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	5	826	718	108	
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	1	375	334	41	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	4	1,135	827	286	22
Christian Local Conventions.....	1	106	106		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	312	235	77	
Lutheran Board of Missions.....	1	110	110		
Society of Friends.....	1	408	374	34	
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	1,240	218	22	
Small or less important schools.....	20	1,377	1,303	14	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	3	226	226		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	11	744	737	7	
Catholic Board of Missions.....	6	497	400	7	
<i>Under colored denominational boards.</i>	22	1,509	1,266	226	17
Large or important schools.....	6	745	510	218	17
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	176	124	52	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	3	434	261	156	17
Freewill Baptist Church.....	1	60	58	2	
Local Baptist Conventions.....	1	75	67	8	
Small or less important schools.....	16	704	750	8	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	1	30	30		
Local Baptist Conventions.....	14	734	726	8	
Methodist Episcopal Local Conferences.....	1				

* Pupils in Kent Home included with attendance of Bennett College.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

North Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control	Teachers and workers								
	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	504	80	424	195	309	370	60	11	57
Large or important schools.....	401	68	333	173	228	267	66	11	57
Small or less important schools.....	103	12	91	22	81	103			
<i>Schools under public control</i>	51		51	30	12	23	13	6	9
Land-grant schools.....	26		26	16		7	8	5	6
State schools.....	25		25	13	12	16	5	1	3
<i>Schools under private control</i>	453	80	373	156	297	347	53	5	48
Large or important schools.....	350	68	282	134	216	244	53	5	48
Small or less important schools.....	103	12	91	22	81	103			
<i>Independent schools</i>	55		55	20	35	45	5		5
Large or important schools.....	37		37	16	21	27	5		5
Small or less important schools.....	18		18	4	14	18			
<i>Denominational schools</i>	308	80	228	130	202	302	48	5	43
Large or important schools.....	313	68	245	118	195	217	48	5	43
Small or less important schools.....	85	12	73	18	67	85			
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	311	80	231	104	207	227	42	4	38
Large or important schools.....	262	68	194	94	168	178	42	4	38
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	46	14	32	19	27	31	7	1	7
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	35	9	26	13	22	22	7		6
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	52	16	36	14	38	33	8	3	8
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	18		18	5	13	9	4		5
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	60	15	45	24	36	43	9		8
Christian Local Conventions.....	6		6	1	5	6			
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12		12	6	6	10			2
Lutheran Board of Missions.....	6	4	2	5	1	6			
Society of Friends.....	14		14	7	7	12	2		
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	13	10	3		13	6	5		2
Small or less important schools.....	49	12	37	10	39	49			
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	4		4	1	3	4			
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	33		33	9	24	33			
Catholic Board of Missions.....	12	12			12	12			
<i>Under colored denominational boards</i>	87		87	32	55	75	6	1	5
Large or important schools.....	51		51	24	27	39	6	1	5
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	12		12	5	7	10	2		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	31		31	16	15	21	4	1	5
Freewill Baptist Church.....	4		4	2	2	4			
Local Baptist Conventions.....	4		4	1	3	4			
Small or less important schools.....	30		30	8	22	30			
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	1		1		1	1			
Local Baptist Conventions.....	35		35	8	27	35			
Methodist Episcopal Local Conferences.....									

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

North Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$311,426	\$31,566	\$138,918	\$51,326	\$80,616
Large or important schools.	281,427	26,296	123,064	45,467	86,600
Small or less important schools.	29,999	5,270	15,854	5,859	3,016
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	49,394	2,668			40,726
Land-grant schools.	32,518	1,956			30,562
State schools.	16,876	712			16,164
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	262,032	28,898	138,918	51,326	42,890
Large or important schools.	232,033	23,628	123,064	45,467	39,874
Small or less important schools.	29,999	5,270	15,854	5,859	3,016
<i>Independent schools.</i>	18,389	3,038		12,015	2,736
Large or important schools.	14,806	1,838		11,197	1,771
Small or less important schools.	3,583	1,200		1,418	965
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	243,643	25,860	138,918	38,711	40,154
Large or important schools.	217,227	21,790	123,064	34,370	38,103
Small or less important schools.	26,416	4,070	15,854	4,441	2,051
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	104,739	21,213	111,267	25,737	36,522
Large or important schools.	182,913	19,504	104,535	23,427	35,447
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	41,051	10,074	18,835	4,750	7,392
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	28,929	500	18,217	7,008	3,204
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	30,000	3,213	10,645	2,247	13,895
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.	8,500	500	8,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	39,360	2,459	30,962	1,717	4,222
Christian Local Conventions.	2,300	300	1,200		800
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	6,000	1,563	3,747	50	640
Lutheran Board of Missions.	6,919		6,895	24	
Society of Friends.	12,366	400		7,372	4,594
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	7,448	495	6,034	259	700
Small or less important schools.	11,826	1,709	6,732	2,310	1,075
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	1,140	440	700		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.	7,986	1,269	3,332	2,310	1,075
Catholic Board of Missions.	2,700		2,700		
<i>Under colored denominational boards.</i>	48,904	4,647	27,651	12,974	3,632
Large or important schools.	34,314	2,286	18,529	10,843	2,656
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	9,046	1,000	7,901	145	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	22,268	1,086	10,628	8,626	1,928
Freewill Baptist Church.	1,700	200		1,500	
Local Baptist Conventions.	1,300			572	728
Small or less important schools.	14,590	2,361	9,122	2,131	976
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.	250	50	200		
Local Baptist Conventions.	14,340	2,311	8,922	2,131	976
Methodist Episcopal Local Conferences.					

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

North Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total	Plant	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$2,547,586	\$2,183,500	\$283,025	\$81,061
Large or important schools.	2,438,756	2,074,670	283,025	81,061
Small or less important schools.	108,830	108,830		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	265,100	265,100		
Land-grant schools.	129,700	129,700		
State schools.	135,400	135,400		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	2,282,486	1,918,400	283,025	81,061
Large or important schools.	2,173,656	1,809,570	283,025	81,061
Small or less important schools.	108,830	108,830		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	120,000	120,000		
Large or important schools.	93,600	93,600		
Small or less important schools.	26,400	26,400		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	2,162,486	1,798,400	283,025	81,061
Large or important schools.	2,080,056	1,715,970	283,025	81,061
Small or less important schools.	82,430	82,430		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	1,801,736	1,504,150	278,025	19,561
Large or important schools.	1,780,606	1,483,020	278,025	19,561
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	433,251	425,690		7,561
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	210,000	173,000	37,000	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	394,920	204,920	190,000	
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.	50,400	50,400		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	459,035	408,010	51,025	
Christian Local Conventions.	70,000	58,000		12,000
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	44,500	44,500		
Lutheran Board of Missions.	46,500	46,500		
Society of Friends.	39,000	39,000		
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.	33,000	33,000		
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	21,130	21,130		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	1,500	1,500		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.	19,630	19,630		
Catholic Board of Missions.	(1)			
<i>Under colored denominational boards.</i>	360,750	294,250	5,000	61,500
Large or important schools.	209,450	232,950	5,000	61,500
African Methodist Episcopal Church.	61,500	61,500		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	217,950	151,450	5,000	61,500
Freewill Baptist Church.	15,000	15,000		
Local Baptist Conventions.	5,000	5,000		
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	61,300	61,300		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.	1,500	1,500		
Local Baptist Conventions.	55,300	55,300		
Methodist Episcopal Local Conferences.	4,500	4,500		

1 Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Oklahoma.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total	Elementary	Secondary	College
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	5	697	507	190	
Large or important schools.	2	501	311	190	
Small or less important schools.	3	196			
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	408	219	189	
Land-grant schools.	1	408	219	189	
<i>Schools under private control (all denominational).</i>	4	289	208	1	
Large or important schools.	1	93	92	1	
Small or less important schools.	3	196	196		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	3	158	157	1	
Large or important schools.	1	93	92	1	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	1	93	92	1	
Small or less important schools.	2	65	65		
Catholic Board of Missions.	2	65	65		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	1	131	131		
Small or less important schools.	1	131	131		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.	1	131	131		

Ownership and control	Teachers and other workers.								
	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	42	4	38	22	20	26	8	2	6
Large or important schools.	34		34	20	14	18	8	2	6
Small or less important schools.	8	4	4	2	6	8			
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	28		28	18	10	14	7	2	5
Land-grant schools.	28		28	18	10	14	7	2	5
<i>Schools under private control (all denominational).</i>	14	4	10	4	10	12	1		1
Large or important schools.	6		6	2	4	4	1		1
Small or less important schools.	8	4	4	2	6	8			
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	10	4	6	2	8	8	1		1
Large or important schools.	6		6	2	4	4	1		1
<i>Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.</i>	6		6	2	4	4	1		1
Small or less important schools.	4	4			4	4			
<i>Catholic Board of Missions.</i>	4	4			4	4			
Under Negro denominational boards.	4		4	2	2	4			
Small or less important schools.	4		4	2	2	4			
<i>Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.</i>	4		4	2	2	4			

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Oklahoma—Continued.

Ownership and control	Income for current expenses.				
	Total	Tuition.	Church boards	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$50,426	\$700	\$3,326		\$46,400
Large or important schools.....	48,376	400	1,576		46,400
Small or less important schools.....	2,050	300	1,750		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	46,400				46,400
Land-grant schools.....	46,400				46,400
<i>Schools under private control (all denominational)</i>	4,026	700	3,326		
Large or important schools.....	1,976	400	1,576		
Small or less important schools.....	2,050	300	1,750		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	2,726	400	2,326		
Large or important schools.....	1,976	400	1,576		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	1,976	400	1,576		
Small or less important schools.....	750		750		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	750		750		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	1,300	300	1,000		
Small or less important schools.....	1,300	300	1,000		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1,300	300	1,000		

Ownership and control	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$163,127	\$163,127		
Large or important schools.....	161,827	161,827		
Small or less important schools.....	1,300	1,300		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	153,827	153,827		
Land-grant schools.....	153,827	153,827		
<i>Schools under private control (all denominational)</i>	9,300	9,300		
Large or important schools.....	8,000	8,000		
Small or less important schools.....	1,300	1,300		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	8,000	8,000		
Large or important schools.....	8,000	8,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	8,000	8,000		
Small or less important schools.....	(1)			
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	1,300	1,300		
Small or less important schools.....	1,300	1,300		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1,300	1,300		

¹ Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

South Carolina.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	61	9,342	7,060	1,311	71
Large or important schools.....	27	6,768	5,391	1,306	71
Small or less important schools.....	34	2,574	2,569	5
<i>Schools under public control</i>	1	726	529	197
Land-grant schools.....	1	726	529	197
<i>Schools under private control</i>	60	8,616	7,431	1,114	71
Large or important schools.....	26	6,042	4,862	1,109	71
Small or less important schools.....	34	2,574	2,569	5
<i>Independent schools</i>	11	1,012	954	58
Large or important schools.....	4	745	687	58
Small or less important schools.....	7	267	267
<i>Denominational schools</i>	49	7,604	6,477	1,056	71
Large or important schools.....	22	5,297	4,175	1,051	71
Small or less important schools.....	27	2,307	2,302	5
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	35	5,493	4,727	695	71
Large or important schools.....	15	3,752	2,991	690	71
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	4	507	254	208	45
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	1	310	201	9
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	2	484	327	157
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	6	925	855	70
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	814	597	191	26
Society of Friends.....	2	408	376	32
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	125	125
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	279	256	23
Small or less important schools.....	20	1,741	1,730	5
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	3	397	397
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	13	883	878	5
Catholic Board of Missions.....	3	366	366
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	1	95	95
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	14	2,111	1,750	361
Large or important schools.....	7	1,545	1,184	361
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	450	304	146
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	2	422	373	49
Baptist local conventions.....	4	673	507	166
Small or less important schools.....	7	566	566
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	12	12
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.....	1	25	25
Baptist local conventions.....	5	529	529

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.
South Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	446	83	363	147	299	324	66	12
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	363	72	291	121	242	242	61	11
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	83	11	72	26	57	82	4	1
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	33		33	23	10	14	9	4
<i>Land-grant schools.</i>	33		33	23	10	14	9	4
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	413	83	330	124	280	310	50	8
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	330	72	258	98	232	228	52	7
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	83	11	72	26	57	82	4	1
<i>Independent schools.</i>	84	3	81	31	53	41	18	6
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	70	2	68	26	44	28	18	6
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	14	1	13	5	9	13		1
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	329	80	249	93	236	269	38	2
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	260	70	190	72	188	200	34	1
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	69	10	59	21	48	69	4	1
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	237	80	157	57	180	184	34	1
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	185	70	115	43	142	132	34	1
American Baptist Home Mission Society	30	18	12	9	21	22	4	
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	8		8	1	7	6	1	
American Missionary Association (Congregational)	21	17	4	4	17	17	3	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	42	7	35	14	28	37	3	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	27	6	21	7	20	23	4	
Society of Friends	31	4	27	8	23	17	10	1
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society	14	11	3		14	4	4	6
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	12	7	5		12	6	5	
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	52	10	42	14	38	52		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	7		7	3	4	7		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	33		33	10	23	33		
Catholic Board of Missions	10	10			10			
Reformed Episcopal Church	2		2	1	1	2		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	92		92	36	56	85	4	1
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	75		75	29	46	68	4	1
African Methodist Episcopal Church	20		20	9	11	17	2	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	17		17	7	10	16	1	
Baptist local conventions	38		38	13	25	35	1	1
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	17		17	7	10	17		
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1		1	1		1		
Afro-American Presbyterian Church	2		2	1	1	2		
Baptist local conventions	14		14	5	9	14		

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

South Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$258,595	\$28,107	\$98,806	\$55,675	\$75,017
Large or important schools.	236,633	23,504	89,379	51,085	72,605
Small or less important schools.	21,962	4,543	9,517	4,590	3,312
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	44,216	848			43,368
Land-grant schools.	44,216	848			43,368
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	214,379	27,259	98,806	55,675	32,549
Large or important schools.	192,417	22,716	89,379	51,085	29,237
Small or less important schools.	21,962	4,543	9,517	4,590	3,312
<i>Independent schools.</i>	51,235	2,799		37,830	10,606
Large or important schools.	45,495	1,799		34,640	9,056
Small or less important schools.	5,740	1,000		3,190	1,550
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	103,144	24,400	98,806	17,845	21,043
Large or important schools.	146,922	20,917	89,379	16,445	20,181
Small or less important schools.	16,222	3,543	9,517	1,400	1,762
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	125,910	18,432	75,002	13,045	18,471
Large or important schools.	114,488	15,729	68,530	13,045	17,184
American Baptist Home Mission Society	21,384	1,861	11,610		7,913
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	1,200	500	700		
American Missionary Association (Congregational)	13,626	4,096	9,007	491	32
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	17,061	1,406	15,485		170
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	39,547	5,392	24,308	6,847	3,000
Society of Friends	8,551	500		2,239	5,812
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society	7,746	1,434	2,740	3,440	132
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	5,373	540	4,680	28	125
Small or less important schools.	11,422	2,703	7,432		1,287
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	2,776	451	1,758		567
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	5,846	1,552	3,574		720
Catholic Board of Missions	2,500	500	2,000		
Reformed Episcopal Church	300	200	100		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	37,234	6,028	22,934	4,800	3,472
Large or important schools.	32,434	5,188	20,849	3,400	2,997
African Methodist Episcopal Church	16,702	2,000	12,000	2,000	702
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	3,640	880	924	200	1,636
Baptist local conventions	12,092	2,308	7,925	1,200	659
Small or less important schools.	4,800	840	2,085	1,400	475
African Methodist Episcopal Church	200	50	150		
Afro-American Presbyterian Church	1,500	100		1,400	
Baptist local conventions	3,100	600	1,935		475

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

South Carolina—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$2,423,734	\$1,863,171	\$481,188	\$79,375
Large or important schools.....	2,342,484	1,781,921	481,188	79,375
Small or less important schools.....	81,250	81,250		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	297,300	297,300		
Land-grant schools.....	297,300	297,300		
<i>Schools under private control</i>	2,126,434	1,565,871	481,188	79,375
Large or important schools.....	2,045,184	1,484,621	481,188	79,375
Small or less important schools.....	81,250	81,250		
<i>Independent schools</i>	416,205	207,921	192,188	16,096
Large or important schools.....	392,305	184,021	192,188	16,096
Small or less important schools.....	23,900	23,900		
<i>Denominational schools</i>	1,710,229	1,357,950	289,000	63,279
Large or important schools.....	1,652,879	1,300,600	289,000	63,279
Small or less important schools.....	57,350	57,350		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	1,495,729	1,143,450	289,000	63,279
Large or important schools.....	1,459,379	1,107,100	289,000	63,279
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	635,744	493,000	140,000	2,744
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	8,000	8,000		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	53,900	53,900		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	127,700	127,700		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	362,035	284,000	40,000	38,035
Society of Friends.....	180,000	71,000	109,000	
Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	16,500	16,500		
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	75,500	53,000		22,500
Small or less important schools.....	30,350	30,350		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	4,000	4,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	30,350	30,350		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
Reformed Episcopal Church.....	2,000	2,000		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	214,500	214,500		
Large or important schools.....	193,500	193,500		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	82,000	82,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	29,000	29,000		
Baptist local conventions.....	82,500	82,500		
Small or less important schools.....	21,000	21,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	500	500		
Afro-American Presbyterian Church.....	7,000	7,000		
Baptist local conventions.....	13,500	13,500		

Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Tennessee.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	32	4,343	2,500	1,100	733
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	16	3,483	1,403	1,047	733
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	16	1,160	1,097	63
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	1	300	119	181
<i>Land-grant school.</i>	1	300	119	181
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	31	4,043	2,381	929	733
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	15	2,883	1,284	866	733
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	16	1,160	1,097	63
<i>Independent schools.</i>	3	1,061	112	250	693
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	2	1,010	112	205	693
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	1	51	51
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	28	2,082	2,269	673	40
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	13	1,873	1,172	661	40
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	15	1,109	1,097	12
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	24	2,568	1,957	581	30
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	10	1,477	878	569	30
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	2	242	102	140
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	1	285	174	111
Board of Freedmen's Mission of United Presbyterian Church.....	1	327	187	110	30
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	3	258	202	56
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	365	213	152
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	(1)
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	14	1,091	1,079	12
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	1	32	32
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Presbyterian Church.....	4	308	296	12
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	5	349	349
Catholic Board of Missions.....	2	281	281
Christian Advent Church.....	1	60	60
Christian Women's Board of Missions.....	1	61	61
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	4	414	312	92	10
<i>Large or important schools.</i>	3	396	294	92	10
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	101	78	23
Baptist Local Conventions.....	1	77	77
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	218	139	69	10
<i>Small or less important schools.</i>	1	18	18
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	1	18	18

¹ Pupils included with Morristown College.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Tennessee—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	336	106	230	132	204	213	41	3	79
Large or important schools.....	279	97	182	118	161	162	38	3	76
Small or less important schools.....	57	9	48	14	43	51	3	3
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	25	25	13	12	10	5	2	8
Land-grant school.....	25	25	13	12	10	5	2	8
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	311	106	205	119	192	203	30	1	71
Large or important schools.....	254	97	157	105	149	152	33	1	68
Small or less important schools.....	57	9	48	14	43	51	3	3
<i>Independent schools.</i>	78	33	45	44	34	30	1	1	40
Large or important schools.....	75	33	42	41	34	30	1	1	43
Small or less important schools.....	3	3	3	3
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	233	73	160	75	158	173	35	25
Large or important schools.....	179	64	115	64	115	122	32	25
Small or less important schools.....	54	9	45	11	43	51	3
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	200	73	127	60	140	148	31	21
Large or important schools.....	148	64	84	50	98	99	28	21
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	31	31	13	18	27	3	1
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	21	14	7	4	17	15	3	3
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Presbyterian Church.....	29	24	5	7	22	15	6	8
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	23	23	8	15	20	3
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	42	24	18	18	24	22	11	9
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	2	2	2
Small or less important schools.....	52	9	43	10	42	40	3
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	4	4	1	3	4
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Presbyterian Church.....	21	21	4	17	19	2
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	11	11	3	8	11
Catholic Board of Missions.....	9	9	9	9
Christian Advent Church.....	3	3	1	2	2	1
Christian Women's Board of Missions.....	4	4	1	3	4
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	33	33	15	18	25	4	4
Large or important schools.....	31	31	14	17	23	4	4
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	11	11	5	6	6	2	3
Baptist Local Conventions.....	5	5	1	4	5
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	15	15	8	7	12	2	1
Small or less important schools.....	2	2	1	1	2
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	2	2	1	1	2

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Tennessee—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$260,753	\$71,266	\$87,022	\$40,865	\$61,600
Large or important schools.....	233,239	64,274	70,682	37,083	61,200
Small or less important schools.....	27,514	6,992	16,340	3,782	400
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	39,819	3,630			36,189
Land-grant school.....	39,819	3,630			36,189
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	220,934	67,636	87,022	40,865	25,411
Large or important schools.....	193,420	60,644	70,682	37,083	25,011
Small or less important schools.....	27,515	6,992	16,340	3,782	400
<i>Independent schools.</i>	103,305	48,408	10,000	20,112	15,785
Large or important schools.....	95,395	43,408	10,000	20,112	15,785
Small or less important schools.....	8,000	5,000		3,000	
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	117,620	19,228	77,022	11,753	9,626
Large or important schools.....	98,115	17,236	60,682	10,971	9,226
Small or less important schools.....	19,514	1,992	16,340	782	400
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	102,792	18,791	66,908	11,253	5,840
Large or important schools.....	83,778	16,899	50,908	10,471	5,440
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	9,942	3,461	4,130		2,351
American Missionary Association (Congrega- tional).....	12,537	3,626	7,252	1,048	611
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Pres- byterian Church.....	25,470	4,800	19,450	1,220	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presby- terian Church.....	8,159	1,650	5,675	675	150
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Epis- copal Church.....	25,084	3,362	12,966	428	1,328
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2,595		1,495	100	1,000
Small or less important schools.....	19,014	1,892	15,940	782	400
American Church Institute for Negroes (Epi- scopal).....	1,182	300	400	482	
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Pres- byterian Church.....	8,350	890	7,210		250
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presby- terian Church.....	1,902	272	1,480		150
Catholic Board of Missions.....	4,350		4,350		
Christian Advent Church.....	1,500	200	1,300		
Christian Women's Board of Missions.....	1,730	230	1,200	300	
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	14,837	437	10,114	500	3,786
Large or important schools.....	14,337	337	9,714	500	3,786
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	4,737	237	4,000	500	
Baptist Local Conventions.....	1,000	100	600		300
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	8,600		5,114		3,486
Small or less important schools.....	500	100	400		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	500	100	400		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Tennessee—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$1,824,223	\$1,553,178	\$221,843	\$49,202
Large or important schools.....	1,754,323	1,473,278	221,843	49,202
Small or less important schools.....	69,900	69,900		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	193,915	155,163		38,752
Land-grant school.....	193,915	155,163		38,752
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	1,630,308	1,398,015	221,843	10,450
Large or important schools.....	1,560,408	1,328,115	221,843	10,450
Small or less important schools.....	69,900	69,900		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	733,058	528,005	193,643	10,450
Large or important schools.....	702,058	497,965	193,643	10,450
Small or less important schools.....	31,000	31,000		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	897,250	869,050	28,200	
Large or important schools.....	858,350	830,150	28,200	
Small or less important schools.....	38,900	38,900		
<i>Under White denominational boards.</i>	249,350	723,850	25,500	
Large or important schools.....	715,950	690,450	25,500	
American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	117,500	117,500		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	54,000	54,000		
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Presbyterian Church.....	175,000	175,000		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	86,750	61,250	25,500	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	274,000	274,000		
Woman's Home Mission Society of Methodist Episcopal Church.....	8,700	8,700		
Small or less important schools.....	33,400	33,400		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	4,000	4,000		
Board of Freedmen's Missions of United Presbyterian Church.....	21,950	21,950		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	1,200	1,200		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
Christian Advent Church.....	2,500	2,500		
Christian Women's Board of Missions.....	3,750	3,750		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	147,900	145,200	2,700	
Large or important schools.....	142,400	139,700	2,700	
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	48,400	45,700	2,700	
Baptist Local Conventions.....	5,000	5,000		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	89,000	89,000		
Small or less important schools.....	5,500	5,500		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	5,500	5,500		

(1) Figures not available.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Texas.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	30	4,309	2,871	1,309	129
Large or important schools.....	18	3,410	1,972	1,309	129
Small or less important schools.....	12	899	899		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	1	552	115	437	
Land-grant school.....	1	552	115	437	
<i>Schools under private control</i>	29	3,757	2,756	872	129
Large or important schools.....	17	2,858	1,857	872	129
Small or less important schools.....	12	899	899		
<i>Independent schools</i>	4	303	317	46	
Large or important schools.....	2	298	252	46	
Small or less important schools.....	2	65	65		
<i>Denominational schools</i>	25	3,394	2,439	826	129
Large or important schools.....	15	2,560	1,605	826	129
Small or less important schools.....	10	834	834		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	16	2,210	1,577	517	116
Large or important schools.....	8	1,543	910	517	116
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	1	371	176	153	42
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	1	73	68	5	
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	1	223	135	70	18
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	1	115	38	27	
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	761	443	262	56
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	2	(1)			
Small or less important schools.....	8	667	667		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	6	617	617		
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	1	36	36		
Christian Women's Board of Missions.....	1	14	14		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	9	1,184	862	309	13
Large or important schools.....	7	1,017	695	309	13
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	286	213	60	13
Baptist Local Conventions.....	5	621	447	174	
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	110	35	75	
Small or less important schools.....	2	167	167		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	2	167	167		

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Other work.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	283	59	224	113	170	187	51	38
Large or important schools.....	237	42	195	104	133	145	49	36
Small or less important schools.....	46	17	29	9	37	42	2	2
<i>Schools under public control</i>	46		46	31	15	17	4	8
Land-grant school.....	46		46	31	15	17	4	8
<i>Schools under private control</i>	237	59	178	82	155	170	34	30
Large or important schools.....	191	42	149	73	118	128	32	28
Small or less important schools.....	46	17	29	9	37	42	2	2
<i>Independent schools</i>	23		23	8	15	17	5	1
Large or important schools.....	13		13	5	8	8	4	1
Small or less important schools.....	10		10	3	7	9	1	

* * * Pupils included with Wiley University and Samuel Houston College.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Texas—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Other work.
<i>Denominational schools</i>	214	59	155	77	140	153	29	2	30
Large or important schools.....	178	42	106	68	110	120	28	2	28
Small or less important schools.....	36	17	19	6	30	33	1		2
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	133	59	74	39	94	90	20	1	22
Large or important schools.....	109	42	67	36	73	68	20	1	20
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	22	12	10	6	16	16	3		3
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	4		4		4	3	1		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	20	14	6	7	13	15	4		1
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	13	13		1	12	11	2		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	43		43	22	21	23	4	1	15
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	7	3	4		7		6		1
<i>Small or less important schools</i>	24	17	7	3	21	22			2
Catholic Board of Missions.....	17	17			17	17			
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	4		4	1	3	4			
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	3		3	2	1	1			2
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	81		81	35	46	63	9	1	8
Large or important schools.....	69		69	32	37	52	8	1	8
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	15		15	9	6	11	1	1	2
Baptist Local Conventions.....	44		44	17	27	35	6		3
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	10		10	6	4	6	1		3
<i>Small or less important schools</i>	12		12	3	9	11	1		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	12		12	3	9	11	1		

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State</i>	\$181,493	\$28,681	\$71,431	\$15,323	\$66,058
Large or important schools.....	167,733	26,841	64,411	14,006	62,475
Small or less important schools.....	13,760	1,840	7,020	1,317	3,583
<i>Schools under public control</i>	49,985				49,985
Land-grant school.....	49,985				49,985
<i>Schools under private control</i>	131,508	28,681	71,431	15,323	16,073
Large or important schools.....	117,748	26,841	64,411	14,006	12,490
Small or less important schools.....	13,760	1,840	7,020	1,317	3,583
<i>Independent schools</i>	10,304	1,850		2,952	5,500
Large or important schools.....	7,343	748		1,635	4,960
Small or less important schools.....	3,021	1,108		1,317	596
<i>Denominational schools</i>	121,144	26,825	71,431	12,371	10,517
Large or important schools.....	110,405	26,093	64,411	12,371	7,530
Small or less important schools.....	10,739	732	7,020		2,987
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	81,175	19,412	48,179	9,267	4,317
Large or important schools.....	74,430	19,180	42,859	9,267	3,230
American Baptist Home Mission Society	19,247	5,327	12,238	682	1,000
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	2,500		1,800	600	100

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Texas—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	\$12,792	\$2,693	\$8,581	\$1,008	\$454
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	10,079	2,237	7,100		1,576
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	25,223	8,923	9,379	6,921	
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	3,695		3,695		
Small or less important schools.....	6,739	232	5,320		1,187
Catholic Board of Missions.....	3,640		3,640		
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	1,387	200			1,187
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	1,712	32	1,680		
Under Negro denominational boards.....	32,009	7,413	23,252	3,104	6,200
Large or important schools.....	35,009	6,913	21,552	3,104	4,400
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	8,004	3,248	1,016		3,800
Baptist Local Conventions.....	24,140	3,400	17,036	3,104	600
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.....	3,765	265	3,500		
Small or less important schools.....	4,000	500	1,700		1,800
Baptist Local Conventions.....	4,000	500	1,700		1,800

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
All schools in the State.....	\$1,431,360	\$1,418,550	\$12,000	\$810
Large or important schools.....	1,396,360	1,383,550	12,000	810
Small or less important schools.....	35,000	35,000		
Schools under public control.....	237,200	237,200		
Land-grant school.....	237,200	237,200		
Schools under private control.....	1,194,160	1,181,350	12,000	810
Large or important schools.....	1,159,160	1,146,350	12,000	810
Small or less important schools.....	35,000	35,000		
Independent schools.....	42,000	42,000		
Large or important schools.....	24,000	24,000		
Small or less important schools.....	18,000	18,000		
Denominational schools.....	1,152,160	1,139,350	12,000	810
Large or important schools.....	1,135,160	1,122,350	12,000	810
Small or less important schools.....	17,000	17,000		
Under white denominational boards.....	817,435	804,625	12,000	810
Large or important schools.....	800,435	796,625	12,000	810
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	314,985	302,125	12,000	810
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	25,000	25,000		
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	103,500	103,500		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	60,000	60,000		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	293,000	293,000		
Woman's Home Mission Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	13,000	13,000		
Small or less important schools.....	8,000	8,000		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)			
Christian Conventions (miscellaneous).....	5,000	5,000		

1 Figures not available.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Texas—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
Christian Woman's Board of Missions	\$3,000	\$3,000		
Under Negro denominational boards	334,725	334,725		
Large or important schools	325,725	325,725		
African Methodist Episcopal Church	97,000	97,000		
Baptist Local Conventions	158,725	158,725		
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church	70,000	70,000		
Small or less important schools	9,000	9,000		
Baptist Local Conventions	9,000	9,000		

Virginia.

Ownership and control.	Number of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elementary.	Secondary.	College.
All schools in the State	56	6,941	5,277	1,613	51
Large or important schools	27	5,301	3,645	1,605	51
Small or less important schools	29	1,640	1,632	8	
Schools under public control	1	573	282	291	
State school	1	573	282	291	
Schools under private control	55	6,368	4,995	1,322	51
Large or important schools	26	4,728	3,363	1,314	51
Small or less important schools	29	1,640	1,632	8	
Independent schools	11	1,685	1,257	428	
Large or important schools	4	1,424	1,003	421	
Small or less important schools	7	261	254	7	
Denominational schools	44	4,683	3,738	894	51
Large or important schools	22	3,304	2,360	893	51
Small or less important schools	22	1,379	1,378	1	
Under white denominational boards	34	3,900	3,200	730	51
Large or important schools	17	2,859	2,009	630	51
American Baptist Home Mission Society	3	537	221	265	51
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	2	406	289	117	
American Missionary Association (Congregational)	1	115	84	21	
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church	3	838	609	139	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	2	246	211	35	
Catholic Board of Missions	2	269	210	50	
Christian Alliance	1	71	62	9	
Christian Woman's Board of Missions	1	76	76		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	1	85	9	76	
Society of Friends	1	225	208	17	
Small or less important schools	17	1,137	1,137		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal)	1	39	39		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church	10	455	455		
Catholic Board of Missions	5	587	587		
Universalist Church	1	56	56		
Under Negro denominational boards	10	687	532	155	
Large or important schools	5	445	291	154	
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	1	45	36	9	
Baptist Local Conventions	4	400	255	145	
Small or less important schools	5	242	241	1	
Baptist Local Conventions	5	242	241	1	

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Virginia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers.								
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Female.	Academic.	Industrial.	Agriculture.	Other work.
All schools in the State.....	604	262	342	241	363	332	129	24	119
Large or important schools.....	519	244	275	222	297	248	128	24	119
Small or less important schools.....	85	18	67	19	66	84	1		
Schools under public control.....	25		25	9	16	12	4	1	8
State school.....	25		25	9	16	12	4	1	8
Schools under private control.....	579	262	317	232	347	320	125	23	111
Large or important schools.....	494	244	250	213	281	236	124	23	111
Small or less important schools.....	85	18	67	19	66	84	1		
Independent schools.....	256	147	109	120	136	87	67	16	86
Large or important schools.....	232	147	85	115	117	64	66	16	86
Small or less important schools.....	24		24	5	19	23	1		
Denominational schools.....	323	115	208	112	211	233	58	7	25
Large or important schools.....	262	97	165	98	164	172	38	7	25
Small or less important schools.....	61	18	43	14	47	61			
Under white denominational boards.....	269	115	154	86	183	186	54	7	22
Large or important schools.....	227	97	130	81	146	144	54	7	22
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	36	21	15	15	21	31	2		3
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	53	3	50	25	28	21	18	2	12
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	13		13	3	10	9	2	2	
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	40	20	20	8	32	28	7		5
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	18	10	8	3	15	17	1		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	34	34		17	17	11	20	2	1
Christian Alliance.....	9	9		1	8	9			
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	6		6	2	4	6			
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	5		5	1	4	4	1		
Society of Friends.....	13		13	6	7	8	3	1	1
Small or less important schools.....	12	18	24	5	37	42			
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	3		3		3	3			
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	18		18	4	14	18			
Catholic Board of Missions.....	18	18			18	18			
Universalist Church.....	3		3	1	2	3			
Under Negro denominational boards.....	54		54	26	28	47	4		3
Large or important schools.....	35		35	17	18	28	4		3
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	7		7	4	3	5	2		
Baptist Local Conventions.....	28		28	13	15	23	2		3
Small or less important schools.....	19		19	9	10	19			
Baptist Local Conventions.....	19		19	9	10	19			

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—*Contd.*

Virginia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations	Other sources.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$564,085	\$35,673	\$153,185	\$150,335	\$224,892
Large or important schools.....	542,068	32,117	141,762	143,714	224,475
Small or less important schools.....	22,017	3,556	11,423	6,621	417
<i>Schools under public control</i> ¹	27,898	5,898			22,000
State school.....	27,898	5,898			22,000
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	530,187	29,775	153,185	150,335	202,892
Large or important schools.....	514,170	26,219	141,762	143,714	202,475
Small or less important schools.....	22,017	3,556	11,423	6,621	417
<i>Independent schools</i> ¹	321,600	4,238	860	127,140	189,416
Large or important schools.....	313,989	2,747	480	121,613	189,149
Small or less important schools.....	7,671	1,491	380	5,533	267
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	214,527	25,537	152,325	23,189	13,476
Large or important schools.....	200,181	23,472	141,282	22,101	13,326
Small or less important schools.....	14,346	2,065	11,043	1,088	150
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	185,701	21,057	130,428	20,881	13,335
Large or important schools.....	176,130	20,449	121,895	20,601	13,185
American Baptist Home Mission Society.....	37,684	9,299	20,671	1,888	5,826
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	53,481	2,728	35,504	13,135	2,114
American Missionary Association (Congregational).....	7,898	943	4,777	120	2,058
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.....	25,544	3,795	21,599	150	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	9,899	1,534	8,294	23	48
Catholic Board of Missions.....	25,000		25,000		
Christian Alliance.....	1,476	326	450	700	
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.....	2,950	250	2,700		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	3,400	1,100	1,900	400	
Society of Friends.....	8,798	474	1,000	4,185	3,139
Small or less important schools.....	9,571	608	8,533	280	150
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).....	280		200	80	
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.....	2,016	408	1,458		150
Catholic Board of Missions.....	6,075		6,075		
Universalist Church.....	1,200	200	800	200	
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	28,826	4,480	21,897	2,308	141
Large or important schools.....	24,051	3,023	19,387	1,500	141
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.....	3,000	250	2,250	500	
Baptist Local Conventions.....	21,051	2,773	17,137	1,000	141
Small or less important schools.....	4,775	1,457	2,510	808	
Baptist Local Conventions.....	4,775	1,457	2,510	808	

¹ Hampton Institute, an independent institution, also receives the Federal and land-grant funds, amounting to \$26,996 per year, apportioned to the colored people of Virginia.

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Virginia—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in the State.</i>	\$6,468,221	\$3,306,560	\$2,932,750	\$228,911
Large or important schools.	6,364,361	3,202,700	2,932,750	228,911
Small or less important schools.	103,860	103,860		
<i>Schools under public control.</i>	233,900	233,900		
State school.	233,900	233,900		
<i>Schools under private control.</i>	6,234,321	3,072,660	2,932,750	228,911
Large or important schools.	6,130,461	2,968,800	2,932,750	228,911
Small or less important schools.	103,860	103,860		
<i>Independent schools.</i>	4,414,459	1,520,849	2,710,915	182,695
Large or important schools.	4,336,559	1,442,949	2,710,915	182,695
Small or less important schools.	77,900	77,900		
<i>Denominational schools.</i>	1,819,862	1,551,811	221,835	46,216
Large or important schools.	1,793,902	1,525,851	221,835	46,216
Small or less important schools.	25,960	25,960		
<i>Under white denominational boards.</i>	1,697,482	1,429,431	221,835	46,216
Large or important schools.	1,690,282	1,422,231	221,835	46,216
American Baptist Home Mission Society.	630,354	523,990	83,000	23,364
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	278,943	186,256	69,835	21,052
American Missionary Association (Congregational).	35,900	35,900		
Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church.	134,600	134,600		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	41,900	40,000	1,000	900
Catholic Board of Missions.	335,000	335,000		
Christian Alliance.	33,000	33,000		
Christian Woman's Board of Missions.	8,485	8,485		
Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.	35,500	35,500		
Society of Friends.	157,500	89,500	68,000	
Small or less important schools.	7,200	7,200		
American Church Institute for Negroes (Episcopal).	1,200	1,200		
Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church.	2,500	2,500		
Catholic Board of Missions.				
Universalist Church.	3,500	3,500		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards.</i>	122,380	122,380		
Large or important schools.	103,620	103,620		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.	18,750	18,750		
Baptist Local Conventions.	84,870	84,870		
Small or less important schools.	18,760	18,760		
Baptist Local Conventions:	18,760	18,760		

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.,

West Virginia.

Ownership and control.	Num-ber of schools.	Counted attendance.			
		Total	Elemen-tary.	Second-ary.	Col-lege.
All schools in the State (large)	3	492	14	381	
Schools under public control	2	382	92	290	
Land-grant schools	1	234	72	162	
State schools	1	148	20	128	
Schools under private control (denominational—white)	1	110	19	91	
American Baptist Home Mission Society	1	110	19	91	

Ownership and control.	Total	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work.			
		White.	Negro	Male.	Fe-male.	Aca-demic.	Indus-trial.	Agricul-ture.	Other work.
All schools in the State (large)	64	12	52	33	31	28	15	3	18
Schools under public control	41		41	25	16	16	12	2	11
Land-grant schools	20		20	20	9	8	10	2	9
State schools	12		12	5	7	8	2		2
Schools under private control (denomina-tional—white)	23	12	11	8	15	12	3	1	7
American Baptist Home Mission Society	23	12	11	8	15	12	3	1	7

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total.	Tuition	Church.	Donations.	Other sources.
All schools in the State (large)	\$77,854	\$2,923	\$6,075	\$822	\$68,034
Schools under public control	60,273	1,284			58,989
Land-grant schools	46,499	673			45,826
State schools	13,774	611			13,163
Schools under private control (denominational—white)	17,581	1,639	6,075	822	9,045
American Baptist Home Mission Society	17,581	1,639	6,075	822	9,045

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total.	Plant.	Endowment.	Other property.
All schools in the State (large)	\$497,627	\$392,949	\$72,678	\$32,000
Schools under public control	275,449	275,449		
Land-grant schools	216,449	216,449		
State schools	59,000	59,000		
Schools under private control (denominational—white)	222,178	117,500	72,678	32,000
American Baptist Home Mission Society	222,178	117,500	72,678	32,000

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.
Northern States.

Ownership and control.	Num-ber of schools	Counted attendance.			
		Total.	Elemen-tary.	Second-ary.	Col-lege.
<i>All schools in Northern States</i>	20	3,029	2,161	633	235
Large or important schools.....	11	1,325	457	633	235
Small or less important schools.....	18	1,704	1,704		
<i>Schools under public control</i>	4	512	144	328	40
State schools.....	4	512	144	328	40
<i>Schools under private control</i>	25	2,517	2,017	305	195
Large or important schools.....	7	813	313	305	195
Small or less important schools.....	18	1,704	1,704		
<i>Independent schools</i>	11	472	455	17	
Large or important schools.....	4	317	300	17	
Small or less important schools.....	7	155	155		
<i>Denominational schools</i>	14	2,045	1,502	288	195
Large or important schools.....	3	406	13	288	195
Small or less important schools.....	11	1,549	1,549		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	13	1,552	1,549	173	130
Large or important schools.....	2	303		173	130
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	1	216		86	130
Society of Friends.....	1	87		87	
Small or less important schools.....	11	1,549	1,549		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	9	1,387	1,387		
Society of Friends.....	2	102	102		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	1	193	13	115	65
Large or important schools.....	1	193	13	115	65
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	1	193	13	115	65

Ownership and control.	Teachers and workers							
	Total.	Color.		Sex.		Kind of work		
		White.	Negro.	Male.	Fe-male.	Acad-emic.	Indus-trial.	Other work.
<i>All schools in Northern States</i>	250	58	192	120	130	137	67	40
Large or important schools.....	178		159	110	68	73	61	38
Small or less important schools.....	72		33	10	62	64	6	2
<i>Schools under public control</i>	87		87	54	33	35	26	22
State schools.....	87		87	54	33	35	26	22
<i>Schools under private control</i>	163	58	105	74	89	102	41	18
Large or important schools.....	91	58	72	56	35	38	35	16
Small or less important schools.....	72		33	10	62	64	6	2
<i>Independent schools</i>	70	6	64	33	37	29	35	5
Large or important schools.....	44	6	38	23	21	11	29	3
Small or less important schools.....	26		26	10	16	18	6	2
<i>Denominational schools</i>	93	52	41	33	60	73	6	13
Large or important schools.....	47	52	34	33	14	27	6	13
Small or less important schools.....	46		7		46	46		
<i>Under white denominational boards</i>	74	52	22	17	57	64	6	3
Large or important schools.....	28	13	15	17	11	18	6	3
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Pres-byterian Church.....	14	12	2	14		14		
Society of Friends.....	14	1	13	3	11	4	6	3
Small or less important schools.....	46	39	7		46	46		
Catholic Board of Missions.....	38	38			38	38		
Society of Friends.....	8	1	7		8	8		
<i>Under Negro denominational boards</i>	19		19	16	3	9		10
Large or important schools.....	19		19	16	3	9		10
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	19		19	16	3	9		10

Table VI.—PRIVATE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS FOR COLORED PEOPLE, BY STATES—Contd.

Northern States—Continued.

Ownership and control.	Income for current expenses.				
	Total	Tuition.	Church boards.	Donations.	Other sources.
<i>All schools in Northern States</i>	\$337,551	\$22,566	\$31,865	\$41,866	\$241,254
Large or important schools.....	297,713	18,624	16,264	29,236	223,589
Small or less important schools.....	39,838	3,942	15,601	12,630	7,665
<i>Schools under public control</i>	158,733	0,741	4,000	1,351	146,641
State schools.....	158,733	6,741	4,000	1,351	146,641
<i>Schools under private control</i>	178,818	15,825	27,865	40,515	94,613
Large or important schools.....	138,980	11,883	12,264	27,885	86,948
Small or less important schools.....	39,838	3,942	15,601	12,630	7,665
<i>Independent schools</i>	57,309	0,901	507	20,821	29,080
Large or important schools.....	39,165	2,959	8,791	27,415
Small or less important schools.....	18,144	3,942	507	12,030	1,665
<i>Denominational schools</i>	121,509	8,924	27,358	19,694	65,533
Large or important schools.....	99,815	8,924	12,264	19,094	59,533
Small or less important schools.....	21,694	15,094	600	6,000
Under white denominational boards.....	93,195	2,394	17,594	17,740	55,407
Large or important schools.....	71,501	2,394	2,500	17,140	49,407
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	48,063	2,394	2,500	11,176	31,993
Society of Friends.....	23,438	5,904	17,474
Small or less important schools.....	21,694	15,094	600	6,000
Catholic Board of Missions.....	15,004	15,094
Society of Friends.....	6,000	600	6,000
Under Negro denominational boards.....	28,314	6,530	9,764	1,954	10,066
Large or important schools.....	28,314	6,530	9,764	1,954	10,066
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	28,314	6,530	9,764	1,954	10,066

Ownership and control.	Value of property.			
	Total	Plant	Endowment.	Other property.
<i>All schools in Northern States</i>	\$3,280,296	\$1,787,097	\$1,493,199
Large or important schools.....	3,036,296	1,693,097	1,343,199
Small or less important schools.....	244,000	94,000	150,000
<i>Schools under public control</i>	862,747	862,747
State schools.....	862,747	862,747
<i>Schools under private control</i>	2,417,549	924,350	1,493,199
Large or important schools.....	2,173,549	830,350	1,343,199
Small or less important schools.....	244,000	94,000	150,000
<i>Independent schools</i>	759,100	329,100	430,000
Large or important schools.....	700,100	270,100	430,000
Small or less important schools.....	59,000	59,000
<i>Denominational schools</i>	1,658,449	595,250	1,063,199
Large or important schools.....	1,473,449	500,250	913,199
Small or less important schools.....	185,000	35,000	150,000
Under white denominational boards.....	1,501,412	490,350	1,032,062
Large or important schools.....	1,316,412	434,350	882,062
Board of Missions for Freedmen of Presbyterian Church.....	1,041,412	334,350	707,062
Society of Friends.....	275,000	100,000	175,000
Small or less important schools.....	185,000	35,000	150,000
Catholic Board of Missions.....	(1)	(1)	(1)
Society of Friends.....	185,000	35,000	150,000
Under Negro denominational boards.....	457,037	125,900	31,137
Large or important schools.....	457,037	125,900	31,137
African Methodist Episcopal Church.....	157,037	125,900	31,137

1 Figures not available.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table VII.—PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS AND NORMAL SCHOOLS.

State and name of school.	Location.		Years in course.	Attendance.			High school teachers.			Value of plant.
	City or town.	County.		Total.	Second-ary.	Element-ary.	Total.	Male.	Female.	
<i>United States, total</i>				29,634	8,707	20,923	484	243	220	\$3,172,250
<i>Alabama, total</i>				1,852	541	1,311	10	6	13	21,500
Birmingham Colored High School.	Birmingham	Jefferson	4	387	387		9	3	6	2,000
Huntsville Colored High School.	Huntsville	Madison	4	531	36	495				
Owen Academy.	Mobile	Mobile	3	702	86	616	5	1	4	4,500
<i>Tusculum, total</i>				1,828	253	1,575	22	11	11	105,000
Langston High School.	Tusculum	Colbert	3	444	39	405	4	1	3	20,000
Merrill High School.	Hot Springs	Garland	4	400	25	384	3	2	1	18,000
Helena Colored High School.	Pine Bluff	Jefferson	4	815	29	786	3	2	1	7,000
Gibbs High School.	Helena	Phillips	3	100	100		8	3	5	40,000
Lincoln Colored High School.	Little Rock	Pulaski	4	60	60		4	3	1	20,000
<i>Delaware, total</i>				485	60	425	11	3	8	33,800
Howard High School.	Fort Smith	Sebastian	3	485	60	425	11	3	8	33,800
<i>District of Columbia, total</i>				1,375	1,375		00	48	48	85,000
Armstrong Manual Training School.	Washington	Newcastle	4	520	520		33	10	14	240,000
Dunbar High School.	do.		4	731	731		48	25	23	500,000
<i>Myrtilla Miner Normal School</i>				1,408	78	1,330	15	4	11	245,000
<i>Florida, total</i>				975	44	931	3	1	2	175,000
Stanton High School.	Jacksonville	Duval	4	493	34	459	3	2	1	15,000
Lincoln High and Graded School.	Tallahassee	Leon	3	321	40	281	5	2	3	15,000
<i>Georgia, total</i>				3,460	770	2,690	44	23	21	200,000
Athens High and Industrial School.	Athens	Clarke	3	27	27		2	2		10,000
<i>Kentucky, total</i>				402	42	420	4	3	1	10,000
Louisville Colored Normal School.	Louisville	Jefferson	1	402	42	420	4	3	1	22,000
State Street High School.	Bowling Green	Warren	4	39	39		4	1	3	41,000
Lincoln High School.	Paducah	McCracken	4	402	402		16	8	8	15,000
Central High School.	Louisville	Jefferson	4	308	10	298	1	1		40,000
Earlington Colored High School.	Earlington	Hoskins	3	366	25	341	3	3		15,000
Douglass High School.	Henderson	Henderson	4	24	24		3	3		15,000
Clinton Street High School.	Frankfort	Franklin	4	1,093	93	1,000	4	1	3	18,000
Russell High School.	Lexington	Fayette	4	448	77	371	4	1	3	23,000
Western High School.	Owensboro	Davies	4	300	40	260	3	2	1	15,000
<i>Do.</i>	Paris	Bourbon	4	787	787		42	17	25	80,000
<i>Maryland, total</i>				600	40	650	3	2	1	14,000
Baltimore Colored Normal School.	Baltimore	Baltimore City	1	600	40	650	3	2	1	14,000
Baltimore High School.	do.		4	600	40	650	3	2	1	14,000
<i>Mississippi, total</i>				699	49		3	2	1	
Colored High School.	Yazoo	Yazoo	3	699	49		3	2	1	

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Above high school grade.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Table VIII.—COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Counties maintaining training schools, 1915.	City or town.	Attendance.		Total.	Teachers.		Total.	Income.			Value of plant.			
		Total.	Ele- men- tary.		Sec- ond- ary.	Total.		Sex.		Total.		Public funds.	Slater fund.	Other sources.
								Male.	Fe- male.					
United States, total.		5,006	5,751	155	130	31	108	\$51,501	\$34,511	\$13,400	\$3,500	\$145,570		
Alabama		604	681	13	19	5	14	6,650	3,610	2,000	1,040	20,000		
Coosa	C ttage Grove.	180	176	13	4	1	3	1,650	750	500	400	11,000		
Lowndes	Charity	150	150		5		5	1,250	750	500		4,700		
Mobile	Plateau	241	241		6	2	4	2,500	1,300	500	640	1,500		
Pickens	Carrollton	114	114		4	2	2	1,250	750	500		3,700		
Arkansas		1,242	1,175	67	25	8	17	10,057	8,957	2,000		27,500		
Chicot	Dermott	245	245		4	1	3	1,804	1,304	500		5,000		
Hempstead	Hope	300	258	42	8	3	5	2,662	2,102	500		9,000		
Lee	Marianna	350	350		6	2	4	3,240	3,240	500		10,000		
Ouachita	Camden	347	322	25	7	2	5	2,751	2,251	500		3,500		
Georgia		305	357	8	9	2	7	3,725	2,050	900	775	10,500		
Ben Hill	Queensland	185	185		4	1	3	1,725	750	500	475	3,000		
Washington	Sandersville	180	172	8	5	1	4	2,000	1,300	400	300	7,500		
Kentucky	Little Rock	70	70		3	1	2	2,000	1,500	500		3,500		
Louisiana		254	254		7	2	5	3,030	2,030	1,000		8,000		
Calcasieu	West Lake	118	118		4	1	3	1,680	1,120	500		4,000		
Morehouse	Bastrop	136	136		3	1	2	1,350	850	500		4,000		
North Carolina		995	995		26	5	21	8,090	5,000	2,500	530	30,050		
Johnson	Smithfield	308	308		7	1	6	1,690	1,100	500		6,500		
Martin	Parmelee	150	150		4	1	3	1,500	750	500	250	6,500		
Pamlico	Stonewall	135	135		5	1	4	1,580	1,000	500	80	5,000		
Sampson	Clinton	242	242		5	1	4	1,870	1,170	500	200	4,500		
Wake	Method	160	160		5	1	4	2,050	1,550	500		14,150		
South Carolina		201	272	19	6	1	5	1,998	750	500	748	5,500		
Clarendon	Manning	291	272	19	6	1	5	1,998	750	500	748	5,500		
Tennessee		1,173	1,159	14	20	2	18	6,025	4,525	1,500		14,040		
Fayette	Somerville	275	275		5	1	4	1,340	840	500		4,540		
Haywood	Brownsville	423	409	14	8	1	7	2,405	1,905	500		7,000		
Shelby	Lucy, R. F. D	475	475		7	1	6	2,280	1,780	500		7,000		
Texas		208	171	34	6	1	5	2,511	1,604	500	347	4,080		
Travis	Manor	208	171	34	6	1	5	2,511	1,604	500	347	4,080		

In 1916 there were 44 county training schools.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO SCHOOLS.

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Virginia.....	614	614	18	4	14	5,015	3,765	2,100	150	14,300
Libermarie.....	75	75	4	1	3	1,100	600	500	3,500
Charlotteville.....	212	212	4	1	3	2,080	1,430	500	4,300
Bowling Green.....	166	166	6	1	5	1,455	955	500	3,500
Blackstone.....	161	161	4	1	3	1,280	780	500	3,000
Lackey.....										
Nottaway.....										
York.....										

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